LETTERS

OF A

TRAVELLER.

OF A

TRAVELLER,

ON THE VARIOUS COUNTRIES OF

EUROPE, ASIA, AND AFRICA:

CONTAINING

SKETCHES OF THEIR *PRESENT*

STATE, GOVERNMENT, RELIGION, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS;

WITH

SOME ORIGINAL PIECES OF POETRY.

EDITED

BY ALEXANDER THOMSON, M. D.

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ERRATUM.

For *agmire*, p. 479, read *agmina*.

LETTERS

OF A

TRAVELLER, &c.

LETTER I.

SIR,

IN compliance with your desire, I now commence a Series of Letters on the different countries of Europe, Asia, and Africa, those great divisions of the globe, which are usually denominated the ancient world. It is a subject of vast extent, and, from its nature, productive of rational entertainment, as well as information. It has never yet been the lot of any individual to visit all those countries; and therefore in such an undertaking as the present, it becomes necessary to have recourse to the accumulated fund of observations made by travellers of the most approved discern-

ment and veracity. In reſpect of the countries which I have viſited in perſon, I I know that you will be ſatisfied with my own authority; and in treating of the others, I ſhall faithfully adopt the account delivered by the lateſt travellers of the character above deſcribed.

As ſuch an excurſion will properly commence from one or other of the extremities of the globe, I ſhall begin with thoſe regions which form the limits of the northern hemiſphere, and thence purſuing my courſe ſouthward and laterally, explore the numerous objects which particularly court the attention.

Imagination alone can ſupply the mind with a picture of the inhoſpitable ſcene which exiſts between the 81ſt or 82d degrees of north latitude and the Pole, where a frozen ocean, and exceſſive cold have placed eternal barriers to the farther approach of navigators. Near the boundary of this tremendous proſpect lie Eaſt and Weſt Greenland; on the coaſts of which, and of Iceland, the enterprizing ſpirit of commerce has puſhed its bold reſearches in the fiſhing for whales. The fields of float-

ing

ing ice, amidſt which they venture on thoſe oceans, are frequently more than a mile in length, and upwards of a hundred feet in thickneſs. How terrible muſt be the ſpectacle, when theſe enormous maſſes are put into motion by a ſtorm! By a dreadful cataſtrophe, reſulting from ſuch an incident, no leſs than thirteen Dutch ſhips were cruſhed to pieces in one ſeaſon. It often happens that the wood which is drifted along between theſe floating mountains, is ſo much chafed, and preſſed with ſuch violence together, that it takes fire; a circumſtance which has excited an erroneous opinion that the ice was in flames.

In Weſt Greenland, though the winter be incredibly ſevere, the country is not uninhabited; and the natives experience, in the ſummer, the temperature of the oppoſite extreme: for in the longeſt days it is ſometimes ſo hot, that they are obliged to throw off their garments.

There are various kinds of whales on the coaſt of Greenland, ſome of which are black, and others of a white colour; but the former are moſt in eſteem, on account of their magnitude, and the great quantity

of fat, or blubber, which they afford. The tongue of this huge animal is about eighteen feet long, enclosed on each side with 250 long pieces of what is called whalebone; which are covered with a kind of hair resembling that of horses. He has no teeth, and is commonly between sixty and eighty feet long; exceeding thick about the head, but tapering thence to the tail. He is generally first known to the seamen by spouting water in the air; when the alarm, fall! fall! being instantly given, every one hastens from the ship to his boat. Six or eight men are appointed to this vehicle; and four or five boats usually belong to one ship. On approaching the whale, the harpooner strikes him with his harpoon, made in the form of a barbed dart; when the monster, conscious of being wounded, runs swiftly down into the deep, and would inevitably carry the boat along with him, if they did not give him line fast enough. After having dived some hundred fathoms, he is forced to come up for air, when the noise he makes with spouting is so loud, that it has been compared to the firing of cannon. He no sooner

ſooner appears on the ſurface of the water, than another harpoon is fixed in him; upon which he again plunges into the deep, and when he next comes up, they pierce him with ſpears in the vital parts, till he ſpouts out ſtreams of blood inſtead of water. He now beats the waves ſo much with his tail and fins, that the ſea is all in a foam; the boats continuing all the while to follow him ſome leagues, till his ſtrength is exhauſted. Then turning himſelf upon his back, he is drawn on ſhore, or to the ſhip, if they are at a diſtance from the land. Thus periſhes this enormous animal, which is then cut in pieces, and communicates its ſtrong ſmell to the ſhips, which either bring home the blubber barrelled up in pieces, or, if they have convenience, extract the oil from it on ſhore. It is computed that every fiſh yields between ſixty and a hundred barrels of oil, amounting each to the value of three or four pounds.

The large whale reſembles a cod, with ſmall eyes, a dark marbled ſkin, and white belly: They ſpout out the water which they take in by inſpiration through two

 holes

holes or openings in the head. They copulate like land animals, ſtanding upright in the ſea. A young whale, when firſt produced, is about nine or ten feet long; and the female ſometime brings forth two at a birth. The whale devours ſuch an incredible number of ſmall fiſh, that his belly is often ready to burſt; in which caſe he makes a moſt tremendous noiſe from pain. The ſmaller fiſh have their revenge; ſome of them faſten on his back, and inceſſantly beat him; others, with ſharp horns, or rather bones in their beaks, ſwim under his belly, and ſometimes rip it up; ſome are provided with long ſharp teeth and tear his fleſh. Even the aquatic birds of prey declare war againſt him when he comes near the ſurface of the water; and he has been known to be ſo tortured, that he has beat himſelf to death on the rocks.

It may appear ſurprizing, that though Iceland is ſituated ſo far to the north, earthquakes and volcanoes are more frequent than in many of the ſouthern countries. Many of the ſnowy mountains have alſo gradually become volcanoes. Among theſe one of the principal is Hecla, ſituated in the ſouthern

ſouthern part of the country, about four miles from the ſea-coaſt. This mountain riſes at the top into three points, the higheſt of which is that in the middle, computed to be more than five thouſand feet above the level of the ſea. Its eruptions were particularly dreadful towards the end of the laſt century, and have been ſeveral times repeated, though with leſs violence, ſince the middle of the preſent. While the country has been occaſionally deſolated by theſe calamities, in ſeveral parts, it has made in others an acquiſition of territory from the boſom of the ocean. In 1783, the inhabitants of Iceland obſerved a phenomenon of ſomething riſing and flaming in the ſea, to the ſouth of Grinburg. It was afterwards diſcovered to be a new iſland, daily increaſing in dimenſions, and from two eminences of which there iſſued great quantities of fire.

Unfavourable as this country may ſeem to the genius of the muſes, we are told that poetry formerly flouriſhed in Iceland, and the names of five or ſix are mentioned as particularly eminent. The art of writing however, was not much in uſe before the eleventh century; though the Runic characters

racters were known in the country at a time preceding that period, and were probably brought thither from Norway. But this alphabet which consists only of sixteen letters, gave way to the introduction of the Latin characters, after the reception of the Christian Religion. It appears from the ancient chronicles of Iceland, that from the beginning of the eleventh to the fourteenth century inclusive, the sciences of morality, natural history and astronomy were much cultivated in this country; and we are assured that more knowledge may be found among the lower class of people in Iceland, than is to be met with in most other countries. Like the Highlanders of Scotland, many of them can repeat the works of some of their poets by heart; and besides being well instructed in the principles of religion, they are acquainted with the history of their own country: a knowledge acquired by the frequent repetition of their traditional histories, which constitutes one of their principal amusements.

I am, &c.

LETTER

LETTER II.

AMONG the natural curiofities in Iceland, the moft worthy of attention are the hot fpouting water-fprings, with which the country abounds. Some of them fpout columns of water, of feveral feet in thicknefs, to the height of many fathoms; and, as fome affirm, of feveral hundred feet. They are of unequal degrees of heat. From fome, the water flows gently as from other fprings, and it is then called a bath; from others, it fpouts boiling water with great noife, and is called a kettle. But though the degree of heat be unequal, Dr. Van Troil affirms, that he does not remember ever to have obferved it below 188 degrees of Farenheit's thermometer. At Langervatin, in the ground, at a fmall hot current of water, the thermometer rofe to 213 degrees.

degrees. It is very common for ſome of the ſpouting ſprings to ceaſe, and others to riſe up in their ſtead. In ſeveral of theſe hot ſprings, the inhabitants who live near them, boil their victuals, only by hanging a pot, into which the fleſh is put, in cold water, in the water of the ſpring. They alſo bathe in the rivulets that run from them, which by degrees become luke-warm, or are cooled by being mixed with rivulets of cold water. The cows that drink of theſe ſprings are ſaid to yield an extraordinary quantity of milk; and the water is likewiſe eſteemed very wholeſome, when drunk by the human ſpecies.

The largeſt of all the ſpouting ſprings in Iceland is that at Gayſer, about two days journey from Mount Hecla. In approaching towards it a loud roaring noiſe is heard like the ruſhing of a torrent precipitating itſelf from a ſtupendous height. The water here ſpouts ſeveral times a day, but always by ſtarts, and after certain intervals. Some travellers affirm, that it ſpouts to the height of ſixty fathoms. The water is thrown up much higher at ſome times than at others. When Dr. Van Troil made his obſervations

upon

upon it, the utmoſt height to which it mounted was computed to be ninety-two feet.

Another natural phenomenon, very common in Iceland, is Baſaltine Pillars, ſuppoſed to be the production of ſubterranean fires. They have generally from three to ſeven ſides; are from four to ſeven feet in thickneſs, and from twelve to ſixteen yards in length, without any horizontal diviſions. In ſome places they are only found ſcattered among the lava in the mountains; but in others they extend two or three miles in length without interruption. The lower ſort of people imagine theſe pillars to have been piled upon one another by giants.

Great damage is done to this country every year by immenſe maſſes of ice, which alſo affect the climate, and commonly arrive with a north weſt wind from *Greenland*. What is called the field-ice is of two or three fathoms thickneſs, is ſeparated by the winds, and leſs dreaded than the rock or mountain ice, which is often ſeen to the height of more than fifty feet above the water, and is at leaſt nine times the ſame depth below water. Theſe prodigious

maſſes

maſſes of ice are frequently left in ſhoal water, fixed as it were to the ground; and in that ſtate remain many months, it is ſaid even years, undiſſolved, chilling all the circumambient part of the atmoſphere to the diſtance of many miles. In 1753 and 1754, the ice cauſed ſo violent a cold, that horſes and ſheep dropped down dead on account of it, as well as for want of food. Horſes were obſerved to feed upon dead cattle, and the ſheep to eat of each other's wool. Along with the ice there arrives yearly a number of bears, which commit great ravages, particularly among the ſheep. Immediately on their appearance the natives attempt to deſtroy them, and ſometimes drive them back to the ice, with which they often float off again. The government of Denmark encourages the people to deſtroy theſe animals, by paying a premium of ten dollars for every bear that is killed: and their ſkins are alſo purchaſed for the king.

It is commonly obſerved that wood thrives well in Iceland; nay, there are very few trees to be found in the whole iſland, yet indubitable proofs exiſt, that wood formerly grew there in great abundance. In General vegetation is remarkably deficient.

Corn

Corn cannot be cultivated here to any advantage; though cabbages, parſley, turnips, and peaſe, may be met with in five or ſix gardens, which are ſaid to be all that are upon the whole iſland.

Notwithſtanding all the diſadvantages of the climate, the number of inhabitants of Iceland is computed at about ſixty thouſand. This however is by no means adequate to the extent of the country, which is computed at four hundred miles in length, and an hundred and ſixty in breadth. It has been much more populous in former times, but great numbers have been deſtroyed by contagious diſeaſes; and many parts of the iſland have alſo been depopulated by famine, chiefly occaſioned by the Grenland floating ice, which, when it comes in great quantities, prevents the graſs from growing, and puts an entire ſtop to fiſhing, the principal occupation of the inhabitants.

To the honour of the Icelanders, though they enjoy the comforts of life in a far leſs degree than moſt other nations, they are much inclined to religion. They never paſs a river, or any other dangerous place, with-

out

out previoufly taking off their hats, and imploring the divine protection ; and they are always thankful for their prefervation when they have paffed the danger. I wifh I could fay as much in favour of the general piety and fenfibility of the people of our own country; where, with a genial temperature of climate, we enjoy in an extraordinary degree all the phyfical bleffings of divine Providence, and live under a political conftitution which is the admiration and envy of the world.

LETTER

LETTER III.

PROCEEDING from Iceland towards the ſouth-eaſt, we come to Norway, which ſkirts the north-weſtern extremity of the continent of Europe. The climate of this country varies according to its extent and its poſition towards the ſea at Bergen, which lies in about the 60th degree of latitude. The winter is moderate, and the ſea is practicable at that ſeaſon; but in the eaſtern parts of Norway, which are commonly covered with ſnow, the cold generally ſets in about the middle of October with intenſe ſeverity, and continues till the middle of April, the waters being all that time frozen to a conſiderable thickneſs. As to the more northern parts of this country, called Finmark, the cold is ſo intenſe that they are but little known. The air is ſo pure in ſome of the inland parts, that it has been ſaid the inhabitants

bitants live ſo long as to be tired of life, and cauſe themſelves to be removed to a leſs ſalubrious air. A Norwegian of an hundred years of age is not accounted paſt his labour; and in 1733, four couples were married, and danced before his Daniſh Majeſty, at Frederickſtall, whoſe ages, when joined, exceeded eight hundred years.

Even froſt and ſnow have here their conveniencies, as they facilitate the conveyance of goods by land; but ſudden thaws, and ſnow-falls have ſometimes dreadful effects, and deſtroy whole villages.

No country experiences greater viciſſitudes from the revolution of the earth round the ſun. At Bergen, the longeſt days conſiſt of nineteen hours, and the ſhorteſt of about ſix. In ſummer the inhabitants can read and write at midnight by the light of the ſky; and in the moſt northerly parts, about midſummer, the ſun is continually above the horizon. In thoſe parts, however, in the middle of winter, there is only a faint glimmering of light at noon, for about an hour and an half, owing to the reflection of the ſun's rays on the mountains. Nature, notwithſtanding, has been

ſo

ſo kind to the Norwegians, that in the midſt of their darkneſs, the ſky is ſo ſerene, and the moon and the aurora borealis ſo bright, that they can carry on their fiſhery and work at their ſeveral trades in the open air.

Norway is reckoned one of the moſt mountainous countries in the world, containing a chain of unequal mountains running from ſouth to north; of which that of Dofrefield is accounted among the higheſt in Europe. They are interſected by rivers and cataracts, which fall down dreadful precipices, and are paſſable only by ſlight tottering wooden bridges, which render travelling in this country exceedingly terrible and dangerous. But providence has endowed the inhabitants with an intrepidity proportioned to their exigencies. This appears from their aſtoniſhing activity in recovering ſheep and goats, when penned up through a falſe ſtep, in one of thoſe tremendous precipices. The owner directs himſelf to be lowered down from the top of the mountain, ſitting on a croſs ſtick, tied to the end of a long rope; and when he arrives at the place where the creature

ſtands, he faſtens it to the ſame cord, and it is drawn up with himſelf.

In the mountains of Norway there are caverns of ſuch prodigious extent as ſurpaſſes all that we meet with in the accounts of other countries. One of them, called Dolſteen, was in 1750, viſited by two clergymen, who reported that they proceeded in it till they heard the ſea daſhing over their heads; that the paſſage was as wide and as high as an ordinary church, the ſides perpendicular, and the roof vaulted; that they deſcended a flight of natural ſtairs, but when they arrived at another, they durſt not venture to proceed, but returned; and that they conſumed two candles going and returning.

The rivers and freſh-water lakes in this country are numerous, well ſtocked with fiſh, and navigable for ſhips of conſiderable burden. Some of thoſe lakes contain floating iſlands, formed by the coheſion of roots of trees and of ſhrubs; and, though torn from the main land, bear herbage and trees. Extraordinary inſtances are related of the formation of ſome of the ſmaller lakes. In 1702, the noble family-ſeat of Borge, near Frede-

Fredericſtadt, ſuddenly ſunk with all its towers and battlements, into an abyſs an hundred fathoms in depth; and its ſcite was inſtantly occupied with a piece of water; which formed a lake nine hundred feet in length, and about half as broad. This melancholy accident was occaſioned by the foundation being undermined by the waters of a river.

The moſt apparently fabulous accounts of the ancients, concerning ſea-monſters, are rendered credible by the productions of the Norwegian ſeas; and the ſea-ſnake, or ſerpent of the ocean, is no longer accounted a chimera. In 1756, one of them was ſhot by the maſter of a ſhip. It's head reſembled that of a horſe; the mouth and eyes were large and black, and a white mane hung from its neck. It floated on the ſurface of the water, and held its head at leaſt two feet out of the ſea. Between the head and neck were ſeven or eight thick folds, and the length of the ſnake was more than an hundred yards, ſome ſay fathoms. They have a remarkable averſion to the ſmell of caſtor; for which reaſon ſhip-maſters provide themſelves with quantities of that drug, to prevent being

 overſet;

overſet; the ſerpent's olfactory nerves being endowed with great ſenſibility. The particelars related of this animal would be incredible, were they not atteſted upon oath. We are informed by Egede, a very reputable author, that on the 6th of July, 1734, a large and frightful ſea-monſter raiſed itſelf ſo high out of the water, that its head reached above the main-top-maſt of the ſhip; that it had a long ſharp ſnout, broad paws, and ſpouted water like a whale; that the body ſeemed to be covered with ſcales; the ſkin was uneven and wrinkled, and the lower part was formed like a ſnake. The body of this monſter is ſaid to be as thick as a hogſhead; his ſkin is variegated like a tortoiſeſhell; and his excrement, which floats on the ſurface of the water, is corroſive, and bliſters the hands of the ſeamen who happen to touch it.

But a more wonderful production yet remains to be mentioned—the Kraken, or Kerven—which nothing but the ſtrongeſt proof of its exiſtence could admit into the catalogue of the animal kingdom. Its bulk is ſaid to be a mile and a half in circumference; and when part of it appears above

the

the water, it reſembles a number of ſmall iſlands and ſand-banks, on which fiſh diſport themſelves, and ſea-weeds grow. Upon its emerging further, there appears a number of pellucid antennæ, each about the height, form, and ſize of a moderate maſt; and by their action and re-action he gathers his food, which conſiſts of ſmall fiſhes. When he ſinks, which he does gradually, a dangerous ſwell of the ſea ſucceeds, and a kind of whirpool is immediately formed in the water. In 1680, a young kraken periſhed among the rocks and clefts at Alſtahong, and his death was attended by ſuch a ſtench, that the channel where it died was impaſſable.

On the coaſt of Norway, in lat. 67 deg. is that dreadful vortex or whirlpool, called by navigators the Navel of the Sea, and by ſome Maleſtrom, or Moſkoeſtrom. The iſland Moſkoe, from whence this ſtream derives its name, lies between the mountain Heſleggen in Lofoden, and the iſland Ver, which are about one league diſtant; and between the iſland and coaſt on each ſide, the ſtream makes its way. Between Moſkoe and Lofoden it is near four hundred fathoms

deep ; but between the former and Ver, is ſo ſhallow as not to afford paſſage for a ſmall ſhip.—When it is flood, the ſtream runs up the country with a boiſterous rapidity ; and when it is ebb, returns to the ſea with a violence and noiſe unequalled by the loudeſt cataracts. It is heard at the diſtance of many leagues ; and ſo violent is the current, that if a ſhip comes near, it is immediately drawn irreſiſtibly into the vortex, and carried down to the bottom in a moment, when it is daſhed to pieces againſt the rocks : and juſt at the turn of the ebb and flood, when the water becomes ſtill for about a quarter of an hour, it riſes again in ſcattered fragments, ſcarcely to be known for the parts of a ſhip. When it is agitated by a ſtorm, it has reached veſſels at the diſtance of more than a Norway mile, where the crews have thought themſelves in perfect ſecurity. Even animals, which have come too near the vortex, have expreſſed their utmoſt terror when they find the ſtream irreſiſtible. Whales are frequently carried away ; and the moment they feel the force of the water, they ſtruggle againſt it with all their might, howling and bellowing

ing in a frightful manner. The like happens frequently to bears, which attempt to ſwim to the iſland to prey upon the ſheep.

The Norwegians themſelves are almoſt as extraordinary as the country which they inhabit. Every native is an artizan, and ſupplies his family in all its neceſſaries with his own manufactures; ſo that in Norway there are very few trades by profeſſion. From being formerly the moſt turbulent and refractory, they are now the moſt quiet and loyal ſubjects in Europe; which may be accounted for from the barbarity and tyranny of their kings, when a ſeparate people. Since the union of Calmar, which united Norway to Denmark, their hiſtory and intereſts are the ſame with thoſe of that kingdom; the ſovereign of which derives from them an annual revenue of near two hundred thouſand pounds, chiefly from the produce of the immenſe foreſt with which the country abounds.

LETTER IV.

PASSING the Sçaggene Sea, or Categate, on the ſouth of Norway, we arrive in Denmark, which is divided into two parts. One of theſe is the peninſula of Jutland; and the other the iſlands at the entrance of the Baltic. It deſerves to be remarked, that though all theſe collectively conſtitute the kingdom of Denmark, yet not any one of them is ſeparately called by that name. Copenhagen, the metropolis, ſtands in the iſland of Zealand.

Jutland is the largeſt, as well as moſt fertile, of all the provinces of this kingdom, and produces abundance of all ſorts of grain and paſturage. A great number of ſmall cattle are bred in this province, and afterwards tranſported into Holſtein, to be fed for the foreign markets. Zealand is for the moſt

moſt part a ſandy ſoil, but not unfertile in grain and paſturage; and is agreeably variegated with woods and lakes. Spring and autumn are ſeaſons ſcarcely known in Denmark, on account of the ſudden tranſitions from cold to heat, and from heat to cold, which diſtinguiſh the climate of this kingdom. In all the northern provinces of Denmark the winters are extremely ſevere, and during thoſe ſeaſons all the harbours are frozen up.

The feudal ſyſtem ſtill prevails in this country, in a degree moſt injurious to the intereſts of the people. The greateſt part of the lands in Denmark and Holſtein are fiefs; and the ancient nobility, by grants which they extorted at different times from the crown, acquired ſuch a power over the peaſantry, and all thoſe who reſided upon their eſtates, that at length they reduced them to a ſtate of extreme ſlavery. The ſituation of the people has indeed been rendered ſomewhat leſs grievous by modern edicts, but they ſtill are ſubject to the oppreſſion of ariſtocratical tyranny; continuing to be diſpoſed of at the will of their lords, many of whom retain the power of life

life and death upon their eſtates. Nothing is more common in this country than to ſee an induſtrious peaſant, after labouring ſeveral years to cultivate a poor farm, with a view of enjoying at laſt the profit of his toil, removed by his rapacious landlord to another ſpot of a ſimilar deſcription, where the ſame ungrateful taſk, and the ſame diſappointment again await him. This pernicious practice throws the greateſt damp upon the efforts of induſtry, and prevents thoſe improvements in agriculture which would otherwiſe be introduced ; the conſequence of which is, that nine parts in ten of the inhabitants are in a ſtate of great poverty.

By an actual numeration made in 1759, of his Daniſh majeſty's ſubjects in his dominions of Denmark, Norway, Holſtein, the iſlands in the Baltic, and the counties of Oldenburgh and Delmenhorſt in Weſtphalia, they were ſaid to amount to 2,444,000 ſouls, excluſive of the Icelanders and Greenlanders. However diſproportioned this number may ſeem to the extent of the Daniſh dominions, yet it is greater than could be expected from the uncultivated ſtate of the country.

The

The ancient inhabitants of Denmark poſſeſſed a degree of courage which approached even to ferocity; but they are now greatly declined from that enterpriſing ſpirit, which, in the ninth, tenth, and eleventh centuries, rendered them formidable to the Britiſh dominions. They are now become indolent, timid, and dull of apprehenſion. They are much addicted to intemperance in drinking, and convivial entertainments; but their nobility, who now begin to viſit the other courts of Europe, are gradually refining from the vulgar habits of their anceſtors.

Denmark Proper affords fewer curioſities than the other parts of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions, if we except the Royal Muſeum at Copenhagen, which contains a numerous collection, both natural and artificial. We find here a noble aſſemblage of ancient coins, particularly thoſe of the Conſuls in the time of the Roman Republic, and of the Emperors, after the ſeat of empire was divided between Rome and Conſtantinople. Among the contents of this repoſitory, is a beautiful cabinet of ivory and ebony, made by a Daniſh artiſt who was blind. Here are likewiſe

to

to be ſeen two famous antique drinking veſſels; one of gold, the other of ſilver, and both of the form of a hunting horn. That of gold ſeems to be of Pagan manufacture; and from the raiſed hieroglyphical figures on its outſide, it probably was uſed in religious ceremonies. It is about two feet nine inches long, weighs an hundred and two ounces, and contains two Engliſh pints and a half. The other, of ſilver, weighs about four pounds, and is called *Cornu Oldenburgicum.* This, they ſay, was preſented to Otho, firſt Duke of Oldenburg, by a ghoſt; but the more probable opinion is, that this veſſel was made by the order of Chriſtian I. King of Denmark, the firſt of the Oldenburg race, who occupied the throne about the middle of the fifteenth century. This muſeum is likewiſe furniſhed with a prodigious number of aſtronomical, optical, and mathematical inſtruments. Many curious aſtronomical inſtruments are likewiſe placed in the round tower at Copenhagen, which is ſo contrived that a coach may drive to its top. With this extraordinary ſtructure the name of Tycho Brahe, the celebrated aſtronomer of Denmark, and one of the greateſt men it

ever

ever produced, obtrudes itſelf upon our remembrance.

Among the curioſities in Denmark are the ancient inſcriptions upon rocks, which are mentioned both by antiquaries and hiſtorians. Theſe characters are Runic, and ſo imperfectly underſtood even by the learned, that their meaning is extremely uncertain. They are however conjectured to be hiſtorical, and to be the old and original manner of writing, before the uſe of paper of any kind, and waxen tables was known. The village of Anglen, lying between Kenſburg and Keſwick, is alſo eſteemed a curioſity, as giving its name to the Angles, or Anglo-Saxon inhabitants of Great Britain, and the anceſtors of the bulk of the modern Engliſh. In contemplating ſuch an incident in the hiſtory of our country, I know not whether the national pride of an Engliſhman receives addition or abaſement; and it would ſeem, that to determine the point, he muſt have a more perfect acquaintance with his genealogy than ever can be acquired. To thoſe, however, who eſteem themſelves deſcendants of the Anglo-Saxons, it may afford ſome pleaſure to reflect, that the

purity

purity of the Latin language was revived in Scandinavia, in the perſon of Saxo-Grammaticus, at a time (the twelfth century,) when it was dormant in all other parts of the European continent. This northern Hiſtorian, like his cotemporaries, has adopted the moſt ridiculous abſurdities of remote antiquity; but he has enobled them by a ſtyle which gives dignity even to the extravagance of fiction. We learn from him, at the ſame time, that the ancient Danes had their bards, who recited the military atchievements of their heroes; and that their firſt hiſtorical productions were compoſed in verſe.

The famous city of Hamburg lies, geographically ſpeaking, within the limits of Ducal Holſtein, the property of the King of Denmark; but it is an imperial, free, and Hanſeatic city, having the ſovereignty of a ſmall diſtrict round it, of about ten miles in circuit. It is one of the moſt flouriſhing commercial towns in Europe; and though the kings of Denmark ſtill lay claim to certain privileges within its walls, it may be conſidered as an independent commonwealth. The number of its inhabitants amount

amount to near 200,000. Besides a vast variety of noble edifices, both public and private, it has two spacious harbours, formed by the river Elbe, which runs through the town; and no less than eighty-four bridges thrown over its canals.

LETTER

LETTER V.

THE country next in my rout is Lapland, part of which belongs to the Danes; the moſt valuable to the Swedes; and the eaſtern diſtrict to the Ruſſians. But the Swediſh Lapland is the object chiefly conſidered by authors in deſcribing this country.

From the northern ſituation of Lapland, you will eaſily conceive, that for ſome months in the ſummer, the inhabitants have perpetual day, and during winter, their night is of ſimilar duration; but in the latter ſeaſon they are ſo well aſſiſted by the twilight and the aurora borealis, that they are never obliged to diſcontinue their work on account of darkneſs. The heats of ſummer are exceſſive for a ſhort time; but ſuch is the ſeverity of the winter cold, that it is no unuſual thing for the lips to be

frozen to the cup in attempting to drink; and the limbs of the inhabitants are very often expoſed to mortification from extreme frigidity

Lapland conſiſts of a vaſt maſs of mountains, irregularly crowded together, but interſected by rivers and lakes, containing an incredible number of iſlands, ſome of which are exceedingly pleaſant, and regarded by the natives as the terreſtrial paradiſe. Duſky foreſts, unhealthy moraſſes, and barren plains, conſtitute a great part of the flat country, where the ſtate of the inhabitants, notwithſtanding the powerful influence of habit, muſt be extremely uncomfortable. If any thing can compenſate the intemperature of thoſe dreary climates, it is when a froſt, ſucceeding a temporary thaw, preſents the Laplander with a ſmooth level of ice, over which he travels with a rein-deer in a ſledge, at a rate of prodigious rapidity. This celebrated animal has a great reſemblance to the ſtag, only it ſomewhat droops the head, and the horns project forward. On moving its legs, it makes a cracking noiſe, which is attributed to the ſeparating, and afterwards bringing together the divi-

ſions of the hoof, the under part of which is entirely covered with hair. The ſame neceſſity which obliges the Laplander to uſe ſnow-ſhoes, makes the extraordinary formation of the rein-deer's hoof to be equally convenient in paſſing over ſnow, by preventing it from ſinking too deep, which would unavoidably be the caſe, did the weight of the animal's body reſt only on a ſmall point.

In ſummer the rein-deer provide themſelves with leaves and graſs, and in the winter they live upon moſs. This they have a wonderful ſagacity in finding out; and when found, they ſcrape with their feet the ſnow that covers it. It is inconceivable on how ſmall a quantity of food they ſubſiſt, and the length of journey which they are nevertheleſs able to perform. The rein-deer is harneſſed to a kind of ſledge, ſhaped like a ſmall boat, in which the traveller, well ſecured from cold, is laced down; holding in one hand the reins, and in the other a kind of bludgeon, to keep the vehicle clear of any impediments from ice or ſnow. The rein-deer are ſo ſafe and tractable, that the driver is at little or no trou-

ble

ble in directing them; their inſtinct in chooſing the road, and ſhaping their courſe, being aſſiſted by their acquaintance with the country during the ſummer months, when they live in the woods. At night they look out for their provender; and ſcanty as is their uſual fare, their milk often helps towards the ſupport of their maſter. Their fleſh is a well-taſted food, as are likewiſe their milk and cheeſe; their ſkin forms excellent cloathing both for the bed and the body; and their inteſtines and tendons ſupply their maſters with thread and cordage.

With all theſe excellent qualities, the rein-deer have their inconveniences: they are ſometimes buried in the ſnow, and they frequently grow reſtive on their journey, to the no ſmall danger of the driver.

The Laplanders have neither writing nor letters among them, but a number of hieroglyphics, that they uſe in their Rounds, a ſort of ſticks which ſerve them for an almanack. Theſe hieroglyphics they alſo uſe inſtead of ſignatures in matters of law. An attempt has been made to introduce among them the Chriſtian religion, by miſſionaries

from thofe parts of Scandinavia, where the light of the gofpel has reached; but they cannot yet be faid to be Chriftians, though the king of Denmark has inftituted fome religious feminaries among them. The majority of the inhabitants practife as grofs fuperftitions and idolatries as are to be found amongft any people; and thofe of a nature fo abfurd, that they fcarcely deferve to be mentioned, were it not that the number and extravagance of them have induced the northern traders to believe that they are fkilful in magic and divination. To favour this deceit, their magicians, who are a peculiar fet of men, employ what they call a drum, made of the hollowed trunk of a fir, pine, or birch tree, one end of which is covered with fkin. On this they draw with a kind of red colour, the figures of their own gods, as well as of Jefus Chrift, the apoftles, the fun, moon, ftars, birds, and rivers. To fome of thefe they loofely attach one or two brafs rings, which, when the drum is beaten with a little hammer, dance over the figures; and, according to their progrefs, the forcerer forms his prognoftications. Thefe whimfical ceremonies

are uſually performed for gain; and the northern ſhip-maſters are ſuch dupes to the arts of theſe impoſtors, that they often buy from them a magic cord, containing a number of knots, by looſening which, according to the magician's directions, they have the weakneſs to expect that they ſhall obtain what wind they deſire. The Laplanders ſtill retain the worſhip of many of the Teutonic gods; but have likewiſe amongſt them great remains of the Druidical inſtitutions, and they believe the transmigration of the ſoul.

To this account of Lapland I have to ſubjoin the tranſlation of an ode, compoſed, as you will ſee, by a young peaſant of that country, on the courtſhip of his miſtreſs; and I am perſuaded you will eſteem it as no ſmall curioſity. It is written in the verſe which we call the Sapphic.

A LAPLAND ODE.

What mean theſe tedious forms and ways,
That ſtill by freſh and freſh delays,
  Protract a lover's pain?
Five years I've woo'd my Orra fair,
Five years my ſighs have fill'd the air,
  But woo'd and ſigh'd in vain.

Of brandy-cags almoſt a ſcore,
Of beaver's tongues a hundred more,
I've giv'n her kin by turns:
But neither cags their hearts can warm,
Nor tongues prevail to ſoothe the charm,
With which my boſom burns.

The longeſt night that Lapland knows,
The longeſt day that ever glows,
Though they for months endure;
Are nought, compar'd to one ſad bout,
In which my heart is rack'd with doubt,
That Orra's not ſecure.

O! could I but obtain conſent,
And lead her ſmiling with content,
Home in her bridal gown;
No ſwain in Lapland could outgo
The joy, the raptures I ſhould know,
When Orra was my own!

Our happy days and nights would then,
Paſs noted 'midſt the haunts of men,
In a delightful round;
Smooth as the ice, ſwift as the race,
When rein-deer in the rapid chace,
O'er frozen vallies bound.

When

When years on years had flown away,
At laſt we'd ſeal our cloſing day
With a perpetual kiſs;
And lips to lips adhering faſt,
As a cup* by the northern blaſt,
Expire in mutual bliſs!

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* An explanation of this will be found in the preceding account of Lapland, where mention is made of the extreme ſeverity of the cold.

LETTER

LETTER VI.

RETURNING from Lapland we enter the kingdom of Sweden, the face of which reſembles much that of the neighbouring countries, in mountains, marſhes, and barren plains; with this difference, that it has the advantage of a few navigable rivers. It is computed to be in length eight hundred miles, from ſouth to north, and in breadth five hundred. The ſoil is much the ſame with that of Denmark, and ſome parts of Norway, generally very poor, but in other places ſurprizingly fertile. The riches of Sweden are chiefly in the bowels of the earth, having mines of ſilver, copper, and iron, which exceed any in Europe. The firſt gallery of one ſilver mine is a hundred fathoms below the ſurface of the earth: the roof is ſupported by prodigious aſhen beams,

and

and from thence the miners deſcend above forty fathoms to the loweſt vein. This mine is ſaid to produce 20,000 crowns a year. The produce of the copper mines is uncertain. The iron mine employs a vaſt number of ſmelting houſes; but this manufacture begins to ſuffer conſiderable diminution, by the importation of American bar iron into Europe. The whole of the Swediſh mines is loaded with vaſt taxes to the government, the exigences of which are chiefly ſupported by the reſources ariſing from thoſe ſubterranean treaſures.

The Swedes, till of late years, were extremely negligent of tillage, but they now begin to follow the agriculture of France and England; and, according to ſome accounts, they raiſe almoſt as much corn as is neceſſary for internal conſumption. Gothland produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, peaſe, and beans; and in caſe of deficiency the people are ſupplied from Livonia and the Baltic provinces.

The national character of the Swedes has varied greatly in different ages; at one time bold, martial, enterprizing; at another, languid, inactive, and unambitious: ſome-

ſometimes high-ſpirited and jealous of liberty; at other times paſſive and ſubmiſſive. At preſent the bulk of the people are a heavy plodding race of men, ſtrong and hardy, but without any other ambition than that of ſubſiſting themſelves and their families as well as they can; but to whatever object they apply, their perſeverance is indefatigable. The nobility and principal gentry of Sweden are brave, polite, and hoſpitable; have high notions of honor, and are jealous of ther national intereſts. They are in general more converſant in polite literature, than thoſe of many other more flouriſhing ſtates.

Stockholm, the capital of the kingdom, ſtands upon ſix contiguous iſlands; and is built upon piles. The caſtle, which is covered with copper, has neither ſtrength nor beauty; but is commodious, and accommodates the royal court, as well as the national courts and colleges. The harbour is ſpacious and convenient, though difficult of acceſs; and the city diſplays all the exterior marks of magnificence. But the comparative poverty of the kingdom muſt appear in an unfavourable light, when we

know

know that the capital of the national bank ſcarcely amounts to half a million ſterling. An academy of arts and ſciences was ſome years ſince eſtabliſhed at Stockholm, and flouriſhed under the patronage of the late king, whoſe unmerited fate reflects diſgrace on the annals of the country. It is probable, however, from the education of the preſent ſovereign, that he will extend to ſuch an inſtitution the ſame benefits of the royal influence with his illuſtrious predeceſſor.

The principal univerſity in Sweden is that of Upſal, inſtituted about the beginning of the fifteenth century, and patronized by ſeveral ſucceſſive monarchs; particularly by the great Guſtavus Adolphus, and his daughter Queen Chriſtiana, who emulated the glory of her father by her liberal encouragement and example, in promoting the arts of peace. There are in this univerſity near fifteen hundred ſtudents; but for the moſt part they are extremely indigent, and lodge five or ſix together in very poor hovels. The profeſſors in different branches of literature are about twenty-two, but their ſalaries in general are ſmall. There is an-

other

other univerſity at Abo in Finland, but leſs flouriſhing than the preceding. A third, which formerly exiſted at Lunden, in Schonon, is now fallen into decay. In every dioceſe a free ſchool is eſtabliſhed, where the youth are qualified for the univerſity.

Sweden, like the northern countries in general, can boaſt of few antiquities, or artificial curioſities; and thoſe of the natural claſs are likewiſe not numerous. A few leagues from Gottenburg, there is a hideous precipice, down which a dreadful cataract of water ruſhes with ſuch impetuoſity, that large maſts and other bodies of timber that are precipitated, diſappear, ſome for half an hour, and others for double that ſpace, before they are recovered. The bottom of this abyſs has never yet been found, though ſounded by lines of ſeveral hundred fathoms in length. In the ſouthern part of Gothland, there is a remarkable ſlimy lake, which ſinges things put into it.

That powerful inſtinct, which attaches animals, as well as the human ſpecies, to the climates of their native country, is ſtrongly evinced in Sweden by various tribes of the birds of paſſage. The Swediſh

hawks,

hawks when carried to France have been known to re-visit the Scandinavian shores; as appears from one that was killed in Finland with an inscription on a small gold plate, importing that it belong'd to the French King.

I cannot avoid mentioning the inconvenience experienced in this country from the nature of its coin, which brings to one's mind the iron money of Lycurgus. Copper is here the chief medium of commerce. Large pieces of this metal bear upon them the stamp of their current value. Some of them are as large as tiles, and a cart or wheel-barrow is often required, to carry home a moderate sum.

The annals of Sweden have been in several ages, illustrious by the atchievements of heroic princes and a martial people; yet the forces of the country consist only of a regulated militia, calculated at present at about forty thousand men, but before the loss of Livonia, at sixty thousand. The cavalry is cloathed, armed, and maintained, by a rate imposed upon the nobility and gentry, in proportion to their estates; and the infantry by the peasants. Every

farm of ſixty or ſeventy pounds per annum, is charged with a foot ſoldier, furniſhing him with diet, lodging and ordinary cloaths, and about one pound a year in money. In lieu of this a little wooden houſe is ſometimes built for him by the farmer, who allows him hay and paſturage for a cow, and ploughs and ſows land enough to ſupply him with bread. In former times, Sweden has likewiſe made a conſiderable figure as a maritime power, and fitted out forty ſhips of the line; but of late years, their ſhips, as well as their docks, have been greatly neglected.

Chriſtianity was introduced into Sweden in the ninth century, and the people are now of the Lutheran church; the tenets of which were propagated amongſt them by Guſtavus Vaſa, about the year 1523. So great is their averſion to popery, that caſtration is the fate of every roman-catholic prieſt diſcovered in their country. A converſion to popery, or a long continuance under excommunication, which cannot paſs without the King's permiſſion, is puniſhed by impriſonment and exile.

The

The aſcendency acquired by France ſome years ſince, in the councils of Sweden, in conſequence of an annual ſubſidy, has had a pernicious effect upon the intereſts of that kingdom, and proved the cauſe of much domeſtic jealouſy among the friends of the conſtitution. To this, doubtleſs, the Swediſh crown was ſtrongly induced by the deficiency of its own finances, and the deſire of ſecuring an alliance which might protect it againſt any hoſtile deſigns from Ruſſia and Denmark.

LETTER

LETTER VII.

THE country comprifed under the name Ruffia, comprehends the northern parts of Europe and Afia; ftretching from the Baltic and Sweden on the Weft, to Kamtfchatka and the Eaftern Ocean; and on the North, from the Frozen Ocean, to the 47th degree of latitude. It is of an extent nearly equal to all the reft of Europe, and greater than that of the Roman Empire in the zenith of its power. The extremes both of climate and foil, are exemplified within the limits of this vaft dominion. The cold at St. Peterfburg, during the months of December, January, and February, is ufually from 40 to 52 degrees below the freezing point; though commonly, in the courfe of the winter, it is for a week or ten days fome degrees lower.

You

You may form ſome idea of a cold ſo great, on being told, that when a perſon walks out in that ſevere ſeaſon, the cold makes the eyes water, and that water freezing, hangs in little icicles on the eye-laſhes. As the common peaſants uſually wear their beards, you may ſee them hanging at the chin like a ſolid lump of ice. Even in this ſtate, however, the beard is found very uſeful in protecting the glands of the throat; ſo that the ſoldiers who do not wear their beards, are obliged to tie a handkerchief under the chin to ſupply the defect. When the thermometer has ſtood at 25 degrees below 0, boiling-water, thrown up into the air by an engine, which made it ſpread, has fallen down perfectly dry, and formed into ice.

Notwithſtanding this ſeverity of the cold in Ruſſia, the inhabitants are furniſhed with ſuch various means to guard againſt it, that they ſuffer much leſs than might be expected. They warm their houſes by an oven conſtructed with ſeveral flues, and the country abounds with wood, which is the common fuel. They can regulate the warmth in their apartments by the thermometer,

mometer, with great exactneſs; opening or ſhutting the flues, to increaſe or diminiſh the heat. Add to this, that the windows in the huts of the poor are very ſmall, that as little cold may be admitted as poſſible; while in the houſes of perſons of condition, the windows are caulked up againſt winter, and have commonly double glaſs frames.

Such is the ſituation of the Ruſſians within doors; and when they go out, they are cloathed ſo warmly, and covered with furs, that they almoſt bid defiance to froſt and ſnow. It is obſervable, beſides, that the wind is ſeldom violent in winter; but when it blows much, the cold is exceedingly piercing.

The Ruſſians derive from the rigor of their climate, one advantage unknown to the inhabitants of other nations, which is that of preſerving proviſions by the froſt. About the end of October, it is uſual for good houſewives to kill their poultry, and keep them in tubs packed up with a layer of ſnow between them, and then take them out for uſe as occaſion requires. By this means, they likewiſe ſave the nou-

riſhment of the animal for ſeveral months. Frozen proviſions are brought in this way even from the diſtance of Archangel; and the markets in Peterſburg are ſupplied with them in winter, at a cheaper rate than would otherwiſe be poſſible. One may there ſee vaſt ſtacks of whole hogs, ſheep, fiſh, and other animals, which are piled up in the markets for ſale.

The method they have of thawing frozen proviſions is by immerging them in cold water, by which the ice ſeems to be extracted out of the body, and forms a tranſparent incruſtation round it. The ſame end has been attempted by the means of heat, but ſuch a proceſs occaſions a violent fermentation, and almoſt a ſudden putrefaction of the body immerged.

In the warmer provinces of Ruſſia grain grows in great plenty; but in thoſe towards the north this article of life, ſo common in moſt other countries, is extremely defective. In ſome parts, the inhabitants, like the people of Scandinavia, uſe, inſtead of bread, a kind of ſaw-duſt, and a preparation of fiſh bones. In others, they are known to ſubſiſt chiefly on muſhrooms,

 which

which the ſoil produces in great abundance. In a word, the bulk of the people are hitherto miſerably fed, though the moſt laudable efforts have been made by Peter the Great, and the ſubſequent ſovereigns, to promote an acquaintance with agriculture. This extenſive country is particularly favoured by nature in one reſpect, I mean, the vaſt communication by means of rivers, which the inland parts of the nation have with each other. The moſt conſiderable of theſe are the Wolga, or Volga, running eaſt and ſouth, which, after traverſing the greater part of Muſcovy, and winding a courſe of 3000 Engliſh miles, diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian ſea. What deſerves to be remarked, there is not in the whole of this courſe, a ſingle cataract to interrupt the navigation. While it produces all kinds of fiſh, it fertilizes the lands on each ſide with the richeſt trees, fruits, and vegetables of various kinds; increaſing likewiſe in its progreſs the benefits it communicates, by dividing itſelf, in the end, into more than ſeventy branches, by which it enters the Caſpian. By means of this noble river, the city of Moſcow preſerves a communication

cation not only with all the ſouthern parts of Ruſſia, but even with Perſia, Georgia, Tartary, and many other circumambient countries.

Next to this is the Don, or Tanais, which ſeparates the moſt eaſtern parts of Ruſſia from Ana. In its courſe towards the eaſt, it comes ſo near to the Wolga, that the Czar Peter had projected a communication between them by means of a canal; but this grand deſign was fruſtrated by an irruption of the Tartars. This river diſcharges itſelf into the Palus Mæotis, or Sea of Azoph; and excluſive of its turnings and windings, runs a courſe of four hundred miles. The Boriſthenes, or Dnieper, which is likewiſe one of the largeſt rivers in Europe, runs through Lithuania, the country of ſome tribes of the Coſſacs, and of the Tartars, and falls into the Euxine, or Black Sea, at Rinburn, near Oczakow; exhibiting thirteen cataracts at a ſmall diſtance from each other. To theſe may be added, the two Dwinas, one of which diſcharges itſelf at Riga into the Baltic; the other, dividing itſelf into two branches near Archangel, falls there into the White Sea.

Ruſſia is in general a flat level country, except towards the north, where lie the Zimnaporas mountains, ſuppoſed to be the famous Montes Riphæi of the ancients. On the weſtern ſide of the Dnieper, a part of the Carpathian mountains extends ; and between the Black Sea and the Caſpian, Mount Caucaſus borders a range of vaſt plains ſtretching to the Sea of Oral. The northern and north-eaſtern provinces are in a manner deſart ; but in general, foreſts abound over the face of this extenſive country : and the wildneſs of the ſcenes is equalled by that of the inhabitants, who in many parts may juſtly be accounted Pagans rather than Chriſtians.

Among the ſpecies of fiſhes with which nature has plentifully provided the Ruſſians, is that called Beluga, which reſembles a ſturgeon. It is commonly from twelve to fifteen feet in length, weighing from nine to ſixteen or eighteen hundred weight. The fleſh is white and delicate, and of the roe of it is made the famous cavear, ſo much eſteemed for its richneſs and flavour.

The nuptial ceremonies of the Ruſſians are peculiar to themſelves ; and formerly

conſiſted

consisted of some very whimsical rites, many of which are now fallen into disuse. Matches are frequently made by the parents, without the parties ever seeing each other. After the preliminaries have been settled, the bride is examined stark naked by a certain number of females, who have the charge of correcting, if possible, any defects that may be discovered in her person. On the day of solemnizing the marriage, she is crowned with a garland of wormwood; and after the priest has performed his part of the ceremonial, his clerk or sexton throws a handful of hops upon the head of the bride, expressing at the same time a wish that she may prove as fruitful as that plant. She is then conducted home to the house of the bridegrom, amidst abundance of ribaldry and indecent gesticulations, which are now, however, daily declining even among the lowest ranks. The barbarous treatment of wives by their husbands, which formerly extended even to scourging, or broiling them to death, is now either expressly prohibited by law, or by particular stipulations in the marriage contracts.

The

The inhabitants of this country, like other uncultivated people, entertain many false notions with regard to the state of departed souls. Among the better sort of inhabitants,, the dead body is usually kept above ground for eight or ten days; during which time the priest, who is hired to pray for the soul of the deceased, sprinkles the body frequently with holy water. When it is carried to the grave, which is done with a parade of lamentation, the priest produces a ticket signed by the bishop and and another clergyman, as a passport to heaven. This being put into the coffin between the fingers of the corpse, and the interment concluded, the company return to the deceased's house, where there ensues a scene of intoxication, which, among persons of condition, continues, with few intermissions, during the space of forty days; the priest every day saying prayers over the grave of the deceased.

The barbarity of the Russians is in nothing more conspicuous than in the severity of their corporal punishments, which, however are frequently undergone with astonishing insensibility. The single and double

ble knout are both remarbably excruciating. The boring and cutting out of the tongue are likewiſe puniſhments not uncommon; and Peter the Great uſed to ſuſpend the robbers upon the Wolga, and other parts of his dominions, by iron hooks fixed to their ribs on gibbets, where they writhed in agonies, to the number of hundreds, nay thouſands at a time.

You may well imagine, that to travel over the deſarts of Ruſſia, in their naked ſtate, muſt be both very tedious and fatiguing; but in winter, when they are covered with ſnow, this is performed with great facility. The ſnow being frozen hard enough to bear them, the people travel in ſledges, lined with thick felt, and many of them drawn by rein-deer. In the interior parts of Ruſſia, however, horſes are uſed for the purpoſe. The ſledge-way becomes ſo well beaten towards February, that they erect upon thoſe vehicles a kind of coach, in which they may lie at full length, and ſo travel night and day, wrapped up in good furs. In this manner they often perform a journey of about four hundred miles, ſuch as that from Peterſburg to Moſcow, in three

days and nights. Her late imperial majesty, in her winter journies, was drawn by twenty-four post horses, in an erection made of timber, which contained sufficient conveniencies to accommodate four persons.

Learning has for a considerable time begun to be cultivated in Russia, and made particularly great progress under the auspices of the late Empress. Peter the Great founded three colleges at Moscow; one for classical learning and philosophy, the second for mathematics, and the third for navigation and astronomy: since which time an university has likewise been founded in that city. The late Czarina founded an university at Petersburg, to which she invited some of the most learned foreigners in every faculty, and settled upon them handsome salaries. She there also instituted a military academy, where the young nobility, and the sons of officers, are instructed in the art of war.

Petersburg, the modern capital of this vast empire, is situated in latitude 60, on both sides of the river Neva, at its junction with the lake of Ladoga. About the beginning of the present century, it consisted of a few

small

ſmall fiſhing huts, on a ſpot ſo ſwampy, that the ground was formed into nine iſlands; but ſuch is at preſent the ſtate of this wonderful emporium, that it rivals in magnificence the moſt celebrated cities in Europe. Among the public ſtructures worthy of notice, I cannot forbear mentioning a convent, in which four hundred and forty young ladies were educated at the expence of the late empreſs. Two hundred of theſe were of ſuperior rank, and the others, daughters of citizens and tradeſmen; who after receiving a ſuitable education, were preſented with a ſum of money, to procure themſelves a proper livelihood on quitting the convent. Peterſburg is ſuppoſed to contain about four hundred thouſand inhabitants, and is ornamented with thirty-five great churches. It alſo contains five palaces, ſome of which are ſuperb, particularly that which is called the New Summer Palace, ſituated near the Triumphal Port, an elegant piece of architecture. The number of foreign ſhips trading thither in the ſummer time is prodigious; and in winter three thouſand one-horſe ſledges are employed for paſſengers in the ſtreets.

Before the eſtabliſhment of Peterſburg, the city of Moſcow was the capital of this vaſt empire, and though now declined from its former grandeur, it ſtill continues to make an eminent figure among the firſt cities in Europe. The houſes of the inhabitants in general are mean ſtructures of timber: but the palaces, churches, convents, and other public edifices, of which there is a great number, are ſpacious and lofty. The Krimlin, or grand Imperial palace, is one of the nobleſt edifices in Europe.

Having mentioned the convent erected at Peterſburg by the late empreſs, I cannot paſs over in ſilence an inſtitution of a ſimilar nature in Moſcow, promoted likewiſe by her patronage, and ſupported by voluntary contributions, legacies, and other charitable endowments. What I allude to is the Foundling Hoſpital, an immenſe pile of building, of a quadrangular ſhape, containing at preſent upwards of three thouſand foundlings; and when the eſtabliſhment is completed, it is intended to contain eight thouſand.

Ruſſia having only lately emerged from barbariſm, we cannot here look for any of

thoſe antiquities uſually met with in nations which have long been in a ſtate of cultivation. She exhibits, however, ſome ſtupendous monuments of the public ſpirit of her ſovereigns; particularly the canals made by Peter the Great for the benefit of commerce: and I am perſuaded you will agree with me that ſuch peaceful atchievements confer more real glory, as well as ſatisfaction, than that which is ſought for amid the din of arms, and the brilliancy of conqueſt. With regard to the memorials of remote times, however, Siberia is not unproductive. It abounds with old ſepulchres of an unknown people, whoſe inſtruments and arms appear to have been all made of copper. In the cabinet of natural hiſtory at Peterſburg, there is ſhewn a rhinoceros, which was accidentally dug up on the banks of the river Valui. The ſkin, with the hair upon it, is entire. The city of Moſcow is diſtinguiſhed by containing the largeſt bell in the world. It is nineteen feet high, twenty-three in diameter, and is ſaid to be 443,772 pounds weight. By a fall received in conſequence of the beam on which it hung being burnt, a large piece

is broken out of it. By this accident, it has ſince lain uſeleſs, to the no ſmall regret of the inhabitants of that capital, who are remarkable for a peculiar attachment to the ringing of bells.

The building of Peterſburg, with its ſudden tranſmutation from a few fiſhing huts into a populous and great capital, is an incident perhaps not to be parallelled in the hiſtory of the world; if we except the adjoining fortreſs of Cronſtadt, which is almoſt impregnable. Theſe wonderful objects, equal in magnitude of deſign, but infinitely ſuperior in utility, to the pyramids of Egypt, employed, for ſome years, without any intermiſſion even during night, three hundred thouſand men in driving piles, and laying their ſtupendous foundations. Yet, aſtoniſhing to ſay, the whole plan of thoſe works was drawn by the hand of Peter himſelf, with a very little aſſiſtance from ſome German engineers. But the extraordinary merit of this prince was not confined to greatneſs of conception; he united activity with invention; and wrought in perſon not only in thoſe vaſt undertakings, but in the eſtabliſhment of a naval force, which he raiſed by a ſudden creation.

The

The eſtabliſhed religion of Ruſſia is that of the Greek Church; for the tenets of which I refer you to theological writers. It is ſufficient for me to ſay, that the Ruſſians deny the ſupremacy of the pope, and diſclaim the worſhip of images. They retain, however, many idolatrous and ſuperſtitious cuſtoms.

LETTER

LETTER VIII.

OUR northern excursion will receive some relief, from quitting the vast extent of the Russian plains, for a transitory visit to the numerous islands of Scotland; which are those of Shetland, Orkney, and the Hebrides, or western isles. The Shetland islands are forty-six in number, but many of them uninhabited. The largest, which is that of Mainland, is sixty miles in length, and twenty in breadth; but the whole number of families in the island does not exceed five hundred. On this island the Dutch begin to fish for herrings at midsummer, and their fishing season lasts six months.

Of the Orkney islands, which are about thirty in number, many are likewise uninhabited. The largest is Pomona, about thirty

thirty-three miles in length, and its breadth is in ſome places nine. It contains nine pariſh churches, and ſome excellent harbours. The cathedral of Kirkwall, the capital of the Orkneys, is a fine Gothic building, dedicated to St. Magnus, but now converted into a pariſh church. Its roof is ſupported by fourteen pillars on each ſide, and its ſteeple, which has a good ring of bells, by four large pillars. The three gates of the church are checquered with red and white poliſhed ſtone, emboſſed and elegantly flowered.

The Weſtern Iſles are more numerous than either of the preceding, and ſome of them large. Sky is forty miles long, and in ſome places thirty broad; fruitful and well peopled. The iſle of Mull is twenty four miles long, and in ſome places almoſt as broad. Lewis, or Harries, forming both but one iſland, is a hundred miles in length, and thirteen or fourteen in breadth. Bute, which is about ten miles long, and three or four broad, is famous for containing the caſtle of Rothſay, which gave the title of Duke to the eldeſt ſons of the kings

of Scotland, as it now does to the Prince of Wales.

Beſide theſe, are Ila, Jura, Urſt, St. Kilda, and a numerous liſt of inferior iſlands; among which I muſt particularly mention the famous iſle of Jona, or St. Columb-kill, once the ſeat and ſanctuary of learning in the weſt, and the burying-place of many kings of Scotland, Ireland, and Norway. This place is ſtill conſpicuous for the relics of a ſanctimonious antiquity. The church of St. Mary, which is built in the form of a cathedral, is a beautiful fabric; within which are ſome Gaëlic inſcriptions, and the bodies of the kings abovementioned. The tomb of Columba, who lies buried here is uninſcribed. The ſteeple is large, the cupola twenty-one feet ſquare, the doors and windows are curiouſly carved, and the latter is of the fineſt marble. Innumerable inſcriptions of ancient cuſtoms and ceremonies may be obſerved in different parts of the iſland.

The iſland of Staffa exhibits a moſt beautiful ſcene of the Baſaltis, riſing amidſt the waves, in the form of a new Giant's Cauſeway. For a mile in length, and half a

mile

mile in breadth, the end of this iſland is ſupported by ranges of natural pillars, moſtly above fifty feet high, ſtanding in colonnades, according as the bays or points of land have formed themſelves. Sir Joſeph Banks, who viſited this iſland in 1772, informs us, that upon a firm baſis of rock above theſe, the ſtratum which reaches to the ſurface of the iſland, varied in thickneſs as the iſland itſelf formed into hills or vallies; each hill, which hung over the columns below, forming an ample pediment. Some of theſe, above ſixty feet in thickneſs, from the baſe to the point, formed, by the ſloping of the hill on each ſide, almoſt into the ſhape of thoſe uſed in architecture. Proceeding further to the north weſt, "You meet (ſays Sir Joſeph Banks,) with the higheſt ranges of pillars, the magnificent appearance of which is paſt all deſcription: Here they are bare to their very baſis, and the ſtratum below them is alſo viſible."

In ſome parts of Staffa, inſtead of being placed upright, the pillars were obſerved to be on their ſides, each forming a ſegment of a circle; but the moſt ſtriking

object in this field of ſcenery is Fingal's Cave, which is deſcribed in the following terms: "We proceeded along the ſhore, treading upon another *Giant's Cauſeway*, every ſtone being regularly formed in a certain number of ſides and angles, 'till in a ſhort time we arrived at the mouth of a cave, the moſt magnificent, I ſuppoſe, that has ever been deſcribed by travellers. The length of this cave from the arch without, is 371 feet; the breadth at the mouth 53 feet; and the height in the ſame part 317 feet. The mind can hardly form an idea more magnificent than ſuch a ſpace, ſupported on each ſide by ranges of columns, and roofed by the bottoms of thoſe which have been broken off in order to form it; between the angles of which a yellowiſh ſtalagmitic matter had exuded, which ſerves to define the angles preciſely, and at the ſame time vary the colour with a great deal of elegance. To render it ſtill more agreeable, the whole is lighted from without; and the air within being agitated by the flux and reflux of the tide, is perfectly dry and wholeſome, free entirely from the damps of vapours with which natural ca-

verns

verns in general abound." Sir Joſeph Banks has aſſured me, that nothing he had ever ſeen afforded him greater pleaſure than the ſurvey of this Iſland.

In general the iſlands annexed to Scotland exhibit many pregnant proofs in their churches, the veſtiges of old forts and other buildings, both ſacred and civil, that they were formerly more populous than at preſent. The uſe and conſtruction of ſome of theſe works cannot now be eaſily accounted for. In a gloomy valley in the iſland of Hoy, one of the Hebrides, is a kind of hermitage, cut out of a ſtone, called a dwarf ſtone, thirty-ſix feet long, eighteen broad, and nine high; in which is a ſquare hole, about two feet in height for an entrance, with a ſtone of the ſame ſize for a door; within is the reſemblance of a bed, with a pillow cut out of the ſtone, large enough for two men to lie on; at the other end is a couch, and in the middle a hearth, with a hole cut out above for a chimney.

I ſhould tire you to recount the various veſtiges of the Druidical temples remaining in theſe iſlands; ſome of which muſt have been raiſed with prodigious labour, and are

ſtupendous erections, of the ſame nature as the famous Stone-henge, near Saliſbury. Others ſeem to be memorials of particular perſons or actions, conſiſting of one large ſtone ſtanding upright. Some of them bear the marks of having been ſculptured; and others have ſerved as ſepulchres, and are compoſed of ſtones cemented together. Cairns, or barrows, as they are called in England, are frequent in theſe iſlands, and the monuments of Daniſh and Norwegian fortifications might afford ample room for deſcription. The gigantic bones found in many burial places here, afford room to believe that the former inhabitants were of larger ſize than the preſent. It ſeems likewiſe probable, from ſome ancient remains, particularly catacombs, and ſome ſilver fibulæ or claſps, found at Stennis, one of the Orkneys, that the Romans were well acquainted with theſe parts. There is not a doubt but one of the iſlands on the north of Scotland, was their *Ultima Thule.*

It has been the opinion of many learned men, that the Hebrides, being the moſt weſterly iſlands where the Celts ſettled, their language muſt remain there in its greateſt

purity:

purity: but this opinion, though very plausible, is contradicted by experience. It is true that many Celtic words, as well as customs, are found in these islands; but the great intercourse which the Hebrides had with the Danes, the Norwegians, and other northern people, whose language is mixed with Sclavonian and Teutonic, the latter of which has no affinity with the Celtic, has rendered their language a compound; so that it approaches in no degree to the purity of the Celtic, commonly called Erse, which was spoken by their neighbours in Lochabar and the opposite coasts of Scotland, the undoubted descendants of the Celts, among whom their language remains more unmixed.

There is very little difference in the climate of these islands, the air being keen, piercing, and salubrious; so that many of the natives live to a great age. In the Shetland and Orkney islands they see to read at midnight in June and July; and during four of the summer months they have frequent communications, both for business and curiosity, with each other. The rest of the year, however, they are almost inaccessible,

ceſſible, through fogs, darkneſs, and ſtorms. It is a curious fact, that in May, 1689, a Scottiſh fiſherman was impriſoned in the capital of the Orkney iſlands, for publiſhing the account of the Prince and Princeſs of Orange being raiſed to the Britiſh Throne the preceding November: and he would probably have been hanged, as a political impoſtor, had not the news been confirmed by the arrival of a ſhip.

It does not appear from hiſtory, to whom the Shetland and Orkney iſlands were ſubject before the cloſe of the eleventh century; but they were conquered by the Normans in 1099, ſome years after the reduction of England by William the Conqueror. In the year 1263, they were in the poſſeſſion of Magnus of Norway, who ſold them to Alexander, king of Scots, and he gave them as fiefs to a nobleman of the name of Speire. After this period, they became ſubject to the crown of Denmark. Chriſtian I. in the reign of James III. conveyed them in property to the crown of Scotland, as a marriage portion with his daughter Margaret, and all future pretenſions were entirely ceded on the mar-

riage

riage of James VI. of Scotland, with the Princeſs Anne, of Denmark.

It might be thought unpardonable to give an account of the Hebrides without mentioning the *ſecond ſight*, for which the inhabitants are ſaid to be remarkable. It is pretended, that there ſwims before their eyes, either real or typical, repreſentations of certain events which are to happen within the ſpace of twenty-four or forty-eight hours. The truth perhaps is, that thoſe highlanders by indulging themſelves in indolent habits, acquire viſionary ideas; and theſe giving birth to extravagant phantoms, they miſtake the latter for the reſult of fatidical or prophetic revelations. They therefore begin to prophecy, and there being a great chance that amidſt many thouſands of predictions, ſome or other ſhould happen to be fulfilled, one well-atteſted inſtance of accompliſhment confers credit on the general imputation. I ſhall, however, relate to you one fact of this kind, which I had myſelf from a reputable ſchoolmaſter on the borders of the Highlands, when I viſited that part of the country, and it is among the

most

moſt remarkable inſtances of the kind that I have heard on the ſubject.

Mr. M— went one evening about ſome buſineſs into a ſmall houſe adjoining his own, where there happened to be an elderly woman from Glenlion. On ſeeing him enter ſhe uttered in the Gaëlic language ſome expreſſions which indicated ſurprize; and fixing her eyes on his legs, exclaimed with a look of aſtoniſhment, *Te chaſs! te chaſs!* that is, "your leg, your leg." He thought no more of the incident till next night, when returning home from a houſe in the neighbourhood, a beetle was maliciouſly thrown at him by a worthleſs perſon who had formerly been his pupil, by which one of his legs was fractured. Recollecting the incident of the preceding evening, he was told by thoſe who had been preſent on that occaſion, and underſtood the Erſe, that one of his legs appeared to the woman of Glenlion to be broken and bloody, and ſhe was aſtoniſhed to ſee him walk in ſuch a condition. I told this anecdote to the late Dr. Samuel Johnſon, who wiſhed he had known it before the publication of his Tour to the Hebrides.

The

The inhabitants of the Hebrides, like the Highlanders on the continent of Scotland, are a hardy and martial race of people; and had they come within the verge of Homer's deſcription in the Iliad or Odyſſey, it is probable that many of theſe iſlands would have been no leſs diſtinguiſhed by their lords or chieftains, than Ithaca by the celebrated Ulyſſes.

LETTER

LETTER IX.

I COME now to the continent of Scotland, a country celebrated both for the martial atchievements of its inhabitants, and the genius of many of its writers. The air of Scotland is more temperate than could be expected in ſo northerly a climate. This ariſes partly from the variety of its hills, vallies, rivers, and lakes; but ſtill more, as in England, from the vicinity of the ſea, which affords thoſe warm breezes that not only ſoften the natural keenneſs of the air, but by keeping it in perpetual agitation, renders it pure and healthful. The ſoil in general is not ſo fertile as that of England; and, in many places, leſs fitted for agriculture than for paſture. Yet there are particular plains and vallies of the moſt luxuriant fertility; and the whole of the

eaſtern

eaſtern coaſt, for many miles up the country, is abundantly fertile.

Scotland contains ſeveral capital rivers, ſuch as the Forth, the Tay, the Spey, the Tweed, and the Clyde ; with many of an inferior ſort, well provided with ſalmon, trout, and other fiſhes, which equally enrich and beautify the country. Its principal mountains are the Grampian Hills, which run from eaſt to weſt, almoſt the whole breadth of the kingdom. Two other chains of mountains, towards the ſouth, run in the ſame direction ; beſides which, I may mention the Cheviot or Tiviot Hills, on the borders of England.

The face of Scotland is agreeably diverſified by a charming intermixture of natural objects. The great inequalities of the ground, in many parts, though unfavourable to the labours of the huſbandman, are particularly pleaſing to a traveller, and afford thoſe delightful ſituations for country-houſes, of which many of the Scottiſh nobility and gentry have ſo judiciouſly availed themſelves.

I do not exaggerate when I aſſure you, that Scotland contains a greater number of

ancient

ancient caſtles and noble edifices than are commonly to be met with in countries of an equal extent. This is owing not only to the general taſte of the nobility and gentry, but to the cheapneſs of the materials for building; by which their paſſion for architecture may be gratified at a moderate expence. Many of theſe ſeats are embelliſhed with beautiful pleaſure-grounds, where art and nature ſeem to have vied in the production of agreeable proſpects. To form an adequate idea of thoſe ſcenes, you muſt viſit Dunkeld, and Blair in Athol, the reſidence of the Duke of that name; but you will find all the charms of local beauty yet more happily united, ſome miles towards the weſt, where Taymouth, the incomparable ſeat of the Earl of Breadalbane, diſplays all her attractions to the view. Verbal deſcription can but faintly expreſs the delightful aſſemblage of objects by which this place is diſtinguiſhed. Hill and valley, wood and water, form the general intermixture of topographical variegation; but here the effect of them is enhanced with peculiar felicity. The poſition and ſhape of the hills are not only highly advantage-

ous, but they are ornamented with natural rocks, picturefque both in form and fituation, and adorned with hermitages, or ruins, or towers, or traces of antiquity, that afford the moft pleafing profpects. The vallies are ftretched in an expanfe fo agreeably romantic, that for a juft reprefentation of them I refer to your own conceptions of the celebrated Tempe. The woods are delightfully mixed in variety as well as arrangement; and the river Tay, befides the profpect of a beautiful lake, proceeds in fuch meanders as feem to have been accommodated by nature to the perfection of a landfcape. To all thefe circumcumftances let me add, the temples and cafcades, the walks, the terraces, and the nutting-paths, which in extent, variety, and beauty, furpafs all I ever met with in travelling.

You have heard, perhaps, of the *Maiden*, an inftrument of decapitation, introduced into Scotland by the Earl of Morton, who was himfelf the firft who fuffered by it; and you are fufficiently well acquainted with the *Guillotine*, which difgraces the annals of France; but I queftion whether you

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ever have been informed of a ſimilar inſtrument, called the Lochabar Axe. This I have ſeen where it is depoſited, in the penetralia of Taymouth. It was employed for extirpating the clan of M'Gregors, whoſe outrages rendered them univerſally ſo obnoxious to government, that thoſe among them who wiſhed to avoid a capital puniſhment, were obliged to change their name; which, I have been told, was not, till lately, revived in the country.

Scotland abounded anciently with magnificent Gothic cathedrals, and other religious edifices, but they were moſtly demoliſhed by the fury of the mobs at the time of the reformation. The Carthuſian Abbey at Perth, which was alſo a royal reſidence, and where James I. was murdered, is celebrated for the grandeur of its architecture. The cathedrals of Elgin in Murray, Dunkeld, Dumfermline, Kelſo, Melrore, Jedburg, and others, with the Gothic Chapel at Roſlin, about four miles from Edinburgh, are beheld with veneration and pleaſure by every traveller. Many of thoſe edifices were founded by King David, who was remarkable for his piety and liberality

to religious inſtitutions; but the ſtructure laſt mentioned was founded towards the middle of the fifteenth century by William St. Clair, Prince of Orkney, and Duke of Oldenburg. Excluſive of romantic ſituation, it is confeſſedly one of the moſt curious pieces of workmanſhip in Europe.

The palaces of the Scottiſh kings, in general, were likewiſe magnificent buildings. That of Dumfermline, the reſidence of the famous king Malcolm, has long been in ruins; but there ſtill exiſts, cloſe by it, a memorial of celebrated royalty. Under the pulpit of the ancient cathedral, are interred the remains of the great King Robert Bruce, whoſe heart, at his own deſire, was carried at his death to Jeruſalem. The palace of Scone, where the kings of Scotland were uſually crowned, is diſtinguſhed by an elegant ſimplicity; while that of Falkland exhibits a magnificence correſponding to the dignity of a crown; and the palace of Linlithgow, the favourite reſort of James V. has been the admiration of ſubſequent ages for the beauty of its architecture.

Edinburgh, ſince the addition of the new town, may be regarded as one of the handſomeſt cities in Europe; and the new Univerſity, when completed, will be a ſtructure proportionably noble. Between the old and new town, lies a narrow bottom or vale, at the weſt end of which the caſtle, ſituated on a ſolid rock, near two hundred feet high, looks down with awful magnificence; and the eaſtern extremity is bounded by a lofty bridge, the middle arch of which is ninety feet high; erected for the purpoſe of joining the new buildings to the city, and of rendering the deſcent on each ſide the vale more commodious.

Facing the caſtle, at the diſtance of a mile, ſtands the palace of Holyrood-Houſe, commonly called the Abbey. It is a quadrangular building, of magnificent architecture, begun by James V. and finiſhed by Charles I. Round the quadrangle runs an arcade, adorned with pilaſters; and the inſide contains noble apartments, now occupied by different noblemen. The chapel belonging to this palace was an elegant piece of Gothic architecture. It had a very lofty roof, and two ſtone galleries, ſupported

ed by curious pillars. The inſide was demoliſhed and rifled of all its rich ornaments by the fury of the mob at the Revolution. They even broke into the repoſitories of the dead, and diſcovered a vault, till then not generally known, which contained the bodies of James V. his firſt queen, and Henry Darnley. The walls and roof of this beautiful chapel gave way and fell down in 1768, occaſioned by the enormous weight of a new ſtone roof, laid over it ſome years before, which the walls were unable to ſupport.

The hoſpital founded by George Heriot, goldſmith to James VI. for the education of poor children belonging to the citizens of Edinburgh, is ſituated ſouth-weſt of the caſtle. It was planned by Inigo Jones, who went to Scotland as architect to Queen Anne, wife of James VI. and is the fineſt ſpecimen which he has left us of his Gothic manner.

Beſides the Univerſity of Edinburgh, there are in Scotland three others, which are thoſe of St. Andrew's, Aberdeen, and Glaſgow. Even before the time of Charlemagne, the Scots began to be ſignalized by

their literary purſuits ; and of their ſucceſsful progreſs we meet with ample documents in the writings of Adamnarus, and other authors, who were nearly contemporary with the period of the Norman Invaſion. Barbour, a Scottiſh poet, is celebrated even prior to the time of Chaucer ; and the Latin ſtyle of Buchanan's hiſtory is hitherto regarded as one of the moſt claſſical of modern productions. Indeed, claſſical learning ſeems to have been more cultivated even at the court of Scotland than at any other in Europe ; as appears from the letters of the Scottiſh kings to the neighbouring princes, which are incomparably the moſt elegant compoſitions of the times in which they were written.

The diſcovery of the logarithms, ſo uſeful in the ſcience of navigation, will ever render the name of Napier of Mercheſtone one of the moſt conſpicuous in the catalogue of memorable inventors. In mathematical ſciences, Keil, Gregory, Maclaurin, Simſon, and Stuart, are particularly eminent ; while in philoſophy, hiſtory, and the belles-lettres, ſeveral natives of Scotland have

have ſhone likewiſe with diſtinguiſhed luſtre.

So numerous are the Roman and other antiquities found in Scotland, that a minute account of them might extend to many volumes. The moſt remarkable for extent is the Roman Wall, called by the people of the country Graham's Dyke, but by others named the Wall of Antoninus, under whoſe direction it was completed, though firſt marked out by Agricola. It ſtretched the whole way from the Clyde to the Forth, croſſing the country in the narroweſt part. The courſe of it is ſtill diſcernible, but the ſtructure has long ſince vaniſhed, with the neceſſity of its continuance.

Near the weſtern extremity of this wall, at Duntocken, ſome labourers, in digging a trench on the declivity of a hill, upon which are ſeen the remains of a Roman fort, turned up ſeveral uncommon tiles, which led to the diſcovery of a ſubterraneous building. The tiles are of various ſizes, the ſmalleſt being ſeven, and the largeſt twenty-one inches ſquare. They are from two to three inches in thickneſs,

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of a reddiſh colour, and in good preſervation. The ſmaller tiles compoſed ſeveral rows of pillars, which form a labyrinth of paſſages about eighteen inches ſquare; and the larger tiles being laid over the whole, ſerved as a roof to the ſtructure. The building is ſurrounded by a wall of hewn ſtone. From the bones and teeth of animals, with a ſooty kind of earth found in the paſſages, ſome have conjectured that this building ſerved as a hot-bed for the uſe of the neighbouring garriſon.

One of the moſt entire and beſt preſerved of any Roman antiquity in North-Britain, is ſituated at Ardoch in Perthſhire. It has five rows of ditches and ſix ramparts on the ſouth ſide; and of the four gates which led into the area, three of them, viz. the prætoria, decumana, and dextra, are ſtill very diſtinct.

Upon the banks of the river Carron, in Stirlingſhire, there ſtood a Roman temple, or building, in the form of the Pantheon at Rome, but which has lately been demoliſhed by its Gothic proprietor, for the purpoſe of mending a mill-pond. Its height was twenty-two feet, and its external circumference

cumference at the baſe eighty-eight feet; ſo that upon the whole it was one of the moſt complete Roman antiquities in the world. As it ſtood near the northern boundary of the Roman empire in Britain, it is thought to have been built by Agricola, or ſome of his ſucceſſors, as a temple to the god Terminus. Near it are ſome artificial concealments of earth, bearing ſtill the name of Dunipace, or *Duni pacis*; which ſeem to confirm that there was a kind of ſolemn compromiſe between the Romans and the Caledonians, that the former ſhould not attempt to extend their empire beyond thoſe limits.

By inſcriptions found on ſtones near the wall, we are made acquainted with the names of the legions that built it, and the particular departments of each. The remains of Roman highways are frequent in the ſouthern parts of Scotland.

Near Auchterarder, in Perthſhire, there is a barrow, reſembling the figure of a ſhip, with the keel uppermoſt. It appears to be of remote antiquity, and is the moſt beautiful of the kind I have ever ſeen. As it lies not many miles diſtant from the ſcene

of Agricola's operations, there may be room for conjecturing that it was erected to the memory of ſome Britiſh prince, who acted as auxiliary to the Romans.

There are in Scotland ſome buildings of a very extraordinary conſtruction, and ſuppoſed to be of Pictiſh origin, from their ſtanding within the dominions of that people. One of theſe is at Brechin in Angus, and the other at Abernethy in Perthſhire. Both of them are columns, hollow in the inſide. That of Brechin is the moſt entire. It is covered at the top with a ſpiral roof of ſtone, and has three or four windows above the cornice. It conſiſts of ſixty regular courſes of hewn ſtone, laid circularly, and regularly tapering towards the top. Upon it are ſome ſculptures, denoting it to be of Chriſtian origin; but theſe, perhaps, are of a later date than the building.

At a place called Aberlemno, near Brechin, there are ſtill to be ſeen four or five ancient obeliſks, called the Daniſh ſtones of Aberlemno. They have been erected to commemorate the victories of the Scots over that people; and are adorned with bas-

bas-reliefs of men on horseback, with many emblematical figures and hieroglyphics.

But there stands near the town of Forras in Murray, a column, which surpasses all others in grandeur. It rises about twenty-three feet in height above the ground, and is said to reach about twelve or fifteen feet below; so that the whole height is at least thirty-five feet, and its breadth near five. It is all one entire stone. Many figures in relievo have been carved upon it, some of which are still visible; but the injury of the weather has much affected those of the upper part. It is probable that this monument was erected in commemoration of the final expulsion of the Danes out of Murray, where they occupied their last settlement in Scotland, after the great defeat they had received from the celebrated King Malcolm.

At Sandwick, in Ross-shire, is likewise a noble ancient monument, surrounded at the base with large well-cut flag stones, formed like steps. Both sides of the column are enriched with a variety of sculpture; among which is a sumptuous cross, with a figure of

of St. Andrew on each hand, and the repre-ſentation of many birds and animals.

The ruins of the cathedral of Elginſtill, exhibit a remarkable grandeur in their ap-pearance. The weſt door in particular is highly ornamented, and there is much ele-gance in the ſculpture.

Among the remains of ancient caſtles de-ſerves to be mentioned that of Keldrummy, in the north of Scotland. It was formerly a place of great ſtrength and magnificence, and often reſorted to, as an aſylum, by noble families, in times of civil wars. Inverugie Caſtle, the ancient ſeat of the Earl Mar-ſhals of Scotland, ſituated on a ſteep rock upon the bank of a river, is a large and lofty pile. The front is terminated by two high towers, which, even in their decaying ſtate, give the building an air of much grandeur and antiquity.

LETTER

LETTER X.

I NEED not inform you that the transition from North to South Britain, is imperceptible to a traveller, unless he crosses the river Tweed, which separates the two countries only for some miles towards the east. In other parts they are contiguous along an extensive frontier; and they seem not more happily adapted to form one united kingdom, by geographical situation, than by the habits, commercial intercourse, and interests of each.

If we entered Scotland with emotions of triumph, on account of its civilization and ancient celebrity, we shall find the same reason to congratulate ourselves on our arrival in England, where arts and arms have long been cultivated with peculiar success, and the glory of her military atchievements

atchievements is diminiſhed only by the facility with which ſhe repeatedly ſubmitted to the yoke of foreign powers. But let us draw a veil over tranſactions the apparent incongruity of which was alleviated by the circumſtances of the times. She has, ſince the laſt of theſe conqueſts, diſplayed ſuch feats of valour, as will ever throw luſtre on her annals.

In reſpect of the temperature of the air, perhaps no country in the world is, upon the whole, preferable to England. But it is peculiarly expoſed to ſudden viciſſitudes of the weather; and the ſucceſſion of the different ſeaſons is in moſt years very irregular. Its inſular ſituation ſubjects it to all the variety of winds that agitate the face of the ſurrounding ocean; while to compenſate this diſadvantage, not a current of air can blow from any point of the compaſs, in which many of her ports are not open to the benefits of commerce. The numerous canals made within the ſpace of half a century, have extended her internal navigation to an aſtoniſhing degree; and ſo great are the improvements in agriculture and manufactures, that the proſperity of

her traffic is unrivalled in every quarter of the globe.

The Rivers in England add greatly to its beauty as well as its opulence. The chief of these are the Thames, the Medway, the Trent, the Ouſe, and the Tyne. There are here but few lakes; though it is evident from hiſtory, and indeed, in ſome places from the face of the country, that meres and fens have been frequent in England, till drained and converted into arable land. Though moſt parts of the country are full of delightful riſing grounds, yet it contains few mountains. The moſt noted are the Peak in Derbyſhire, the Endle in Lancaſhire, the Wolds in Yorkſhire, the Cheviot Hills on the borders of Scotland, the Chiltern in Bucks, Malvern in Worceſterſhire, Elſwold in Glouceſterſhire, and the Wreken in Shropſhire; to which may be added, thoſe of Plinlimmon and Snowdon in Wales. In general, however, Wales and the northern parts may be termed mountainous.

In ancient times England contained large woods, if not foreſts, of cheſnut trees, which exceeded all other kinds of timber for the purpoſes of building, as appears from

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many houſes ſtill ſtanding, in which the cheſnut beams and roofs remain undecayed, though ſome of them are above ſix hundred years old. The firſt Norman Kings, partly for political purpoſes, and partly from the wantonneſs of power, converted immenſe tracts of ground into foreſts, for the benefit of hunting. The number of theſe amounted at one time to no leſs than ſixty-nine; but by degrees they have all been disforeſted excepting four, which are thoſe of Windſor, New Foreſt, the Foreſt of Dean, and Sherwood Foreſt.

Among the minerals in this country, the tin mines in Cornwall deſervedly take the lead. They were known to the Greeks and Phænicians, the latter eſpecially, ſome ages before that of the Chriſtian æra.

London, the capital of the Britiſh Empire is of great antiquity. It appears to have been founded between the reigns of Julius Cæſar and Nero, but by whom is uncertain. It was firſt walled about with hewn ſtones and Britiſh bricks, by Conſtantine the Great; and the walls formed an oblong ſquare, in compaſs about three miles, with ſeven principal gates. London

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is now the emporium of commerce; and enjoys, by means of the river Thames, on which it is ſituated, all the benefits of navigation, without the danger of being ſurpriſed by foreign fleets. Of the extent of this city, Weſtminſter included, an idea may be formed from the number of edifices devoted to the ſervice of religion. Of theſe, beſides St. Paul's Cathedral, and the collegiate Church of Weſtminſter, there are a hundred and two pariſh churches, and about ſeventy chapels of the eſtabliſhed religion, excluſive of a vaſt number of chapels appropriated to the uſe of foreigners, and independent meetings of various kinds.

The Cathedral of St. Paul's is, beyond doubt, the moſt capacious, magnificent, and regular proteſtant church in the World. It is built, you know, upon the model of St. Peter's, at Rome, but greatly inferior in extent; the whole length of this cathedral meaſuring no more than the breadth of the latter. The length within the walls is five-hundred feet; and its height from the marble pavement to the croſs, on the top of the cupola, is three-hundred and forty.

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The expence of re-building it, after the fire of London, was defrayed by a duty on coals, and is computed at a million ſterling. Monuments to eminent perſons are now begun to be erected in this Cathedral; and it has likewiſe been recently decorated with the trophies of naval victories, obtained over our different enemies, in the laſt three memorable engagements.

Weſtminſter-Abbey, or the collegiate church of Weſtminſter, is a venerable pile of building, in the Gothic taſte. It was originally erected by Edward the Confeſſor. King Edward III. rebuilt it from the ground; and to the eaſt end of it was added by Henry VII. a fine chapel, in which is the burying-place of the Royal-Family. The walls of this abbey are now almoſt entirely occupied with the accumulated monuments of perſons either high in rank, or celebrated for extraordinary actions in arts or arms.

Weſtminſter-hall, though it diſplays no grandeur of appearance without, is a noble Gothic building, two hundred and twenty feet long, and ſeventy broad. It is ſuppoſed

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to be the largeſt room in the world, the roof of which is not ſupported by pillars.

The ſtately column, called the monument of London, erected at the charge of the city, to perpetuate the memory of the great fire in 1666, is worthy of attention. It is of the Doric order, two hundred and two feet in height, with a ſtaircaſe in the middle to aſcend to the balcony; whence there are other ſteps leading thirty feet higher, to the ſummit, which terminates in the form of an urn, with a flame iſſuing from it. On the baſe of the monument next the ſtreet, the deſtruction of the city, and the relief given to the ſufferers by Charles II. and his brother, are emblematically repreſented in bas-relief.

When ſuch monuments are erected for the purpoſe of mere commemoration, what may not be expected from thoſe which are deſtined to public utility? Of this kind are the three noble bridges over the Thames; thoſe of London, Weſtminſter, and Black-friars. The firſt was built about the middle of the twelfth century in the reign of Henry II. by a tax laid upon wool, which in courſe of time gave riſe to an erroneous

idea that it was founded upon wool-packs. It has nineteen arches, each about twenty feet wide, but the centre one is confiderably larger.

Weftminfter-bridge is reckoned one of the moft elegant ftructures of the kind. It ftands at a place where the river is twelve hundred and twenty-three feet broad, which is about three hundred feet more than at London-bridge. On each fide is a fine baluftrade of ftone, with places of fhelter from the rain. It confifts of thirteen large, and two fmall arches, all femicircular; that in the centre being feventy-fix feet wide, and the reft decreafing four feet each from the other. This ftructure was begun in 1738, and completed in 1750, at the expence of three hundred and eighty-nine thoufand pounds, defrayed by the parliament.

Black-friars-bridge, in point of workmanfhip is not inferior to that of Weftminfter; but the fituation of the ground on the two fhores, obliged the architect to employ elliptical arches. This bridge was begun in 1760, and finifhed in ten years, at the expence of about a hundred and fifty-three thoufand

thousand pounds, to be discharged by a toll upon the passengers, which is now taken off.

Eastward of the monument, at the distance of almost half a mile, stands the Tower of London, which was anciently a royal palace, and has been for many ages the fortress of the city. It is supposed to have been originally built by William the Conqueror, about the year 1076, when it consisted only of that part called the White Tower, which was new built in 1637, and 1638. A great number of other buildings have been since added. Here are now a church, the offices of ordnance and of the mint; those of the keepers of the records; of the jewel office, the Spanish armoury, the horse-armoury, and the new or small armoury; with barracks for the soldiers of the garrison, and handsome houses for several officers who reside here. In 1098, King William Rufus surrounded the Tower with walls, and a deep ditch, in some places a hundred and twenty feet wide; but on the west side it is narrow. In this quarter is the principal entrance, by two gates, one within the other; both large enough to ad-

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mit coaches, and parted by a bridge, built over the ditch. In a part of the Tower, ſeveral lions, and other foreign animals are conſtantly kept for the gratification of the curious, at the expence of the crown.

Tower-hill has been lately embelliſhed with an elegant building, called the Trinity-Houſe, for the accommodation of the Trinity-company at their meetings: a Company which, conſidered both in a commercial and nautical point of view, is of great utility to the public.

Among the late decorations of the capital is a noble pile of buildings, erected at the public expence, in the Strand, where formerly ſtood Somerſet-houſe. This magnificent edifice is appropriated to public offices, and affords likewiſe elegant apartments for the uſe of the Royal Society, the Royal Academy of Painting and Sculpture, and the Society of Antiquaries.

I ſhould exhauſt your patience were I to deſcribe to you all that is remarkable in this celebrated capital, pertaining either to the purpoſes of government, thoſe of great commercial companies, or of private individuals; and ſhall therefore mention only

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one more ſtructure, but ſuch a one as unites ſcientific improvement with national grandeur; I mean the Britiſh Muſeum, depoſited in a noble edifice, which had been built by the Duke of Montague for his town reſidence. Sir Hans Sloane, who died in 1753, may not improperly be called the founder of this vaſt treaſure of curioſities, which, with his valuable library, he left to the public, on condition that the parliament would pay to his executors twenty thouſand pounds, about a third part only of the ſum which the whole had coſt him. To this collection were added the Cottonian Library; the Harleian Manuſcripts, collected by the Oxford family, and purchaſed likewiſe by the Parliament, and a collection of books, the property formerly of Dr. Mead. His late majeſty was graciouſly pleaſed to enrich the repoſitory further, by a donation of the royal libraries of books and manuſcripts collected by the ſeveral kings of England. The catalogue of the whole of this vaſt collection occupies a number of large volumes.

In the royal library juſt now mentioned, is the moſt ancient manuſcript of the Old and

and New Teſtament that is extant. It is written in Greek, on parchment, and called the Alexandrine manuſcript, from the place where it was found. This valuable piece of antiquity was ſent in the year 1628 to King Charles I. a preſent from Cyrillus Lucaris, then patriarch of Conſtantinople. An account of it is written in Latin, at the beginning of the firſt volume by the donor, importing that it was the work of Thecla, an Egyptian lady of quality, who lived about the time of the council of Nice. It is probable that this manuſcript was written before the year 396; for, except the Evangeliſts, none of the books of this New Teſtament are divided into chapters, that cuſtom not having been introduced till the above period. We may therefore conclude, theſe manuſcripts to be upwards of fourteen hundred years old. The goſpel according to Matthew is moſtly wanting. A beautiful fac-ſimile of this celebrated manuſcript was publiſhed a few years ago.

I had the curioſity to examine ſome of the poetical manuſcripts in the Muſeum, among which I found a ſhort Latin poem, written by John Seward, in the time of

Henry

Henry V. who conquered Charles VI. of France; with which, and a tranſlation of of it, I ſhall cloſe my preſent letter.

Ite per extremam Tanain, pigroſque Triones,
Ite per arentem Lybiam, ſuperate calores
Solis, & arcanos Nili deprendite fontes,
Herculeumque ſinum, Bacchi tranſcurrite metas;
Angli juris erit quicquid complectitur orbis.
Anglis rubra dabunt prætioſas æquora conchas,
Indus ebur, ramos Panchaia, vellera Seres,
Dum viget Henricus, dum noſter vivit Achilles.
Eſt etenim laudes longe tranſgreſſus avitas.

Go, where the ſtreams of utmoſt Tanais roll,
Where endleſs winter reigns around the pole;
Go, where the ſands of ſcorched Lybia glow,
And hidden ſources of the Nilus flow:
In glorious conqueſt, preſs beyond the bounds
Where Fame the deeds of ancient heroes ſounds:
To England's empire ſhall the nation's bend,
Far as the limits of the world extend.
To her the ſea, on Egypt's eaſtern ſhores,
Shall pay the tribute of its pearly ſtores,
Arabia ſpices, India ivory, yield,
And Cathay, golden fleeces from each field;
While Henry lives, while our Achilles' name
Shines forth tranſcendent in the liſt of fame.

LETTER

LETTER XI.

IT is probable that civilization was introduced into England by the Romans; and there is no doubt but the Latin Language was cultivated in this country while it continued to be a province of that empire. The night of darkneſs, which ſucceeded the extinction of the Roman power, involved England with the other nations in the general wreck of learning; but this country was among the firſt to diſpel the obſcurity; and ſo early as the ninth century, an attempt towards the reſtoration of ſcience, amidſt all the obſtructions ariſing from barbariſm, was made by the great King Alfred. He it was who firſt inſtituted the ſeminary which has ſince encreaſed to the famous Univerſity of Oxford; and Cambridge, in a ſubſequent period, claims likewiſe

wiſe the diſtinguiſhed honours of literary renown. I forbear giving any account of theſe Univerſities, as the ſubject would prove too copious for my preſent deſign; and ſhall proceed to take a ſuccinct view of the antiquities found in England. Theſe are of different periods, correſponding to thoſe of the particular people, who, for the time, were maſters of the country; and may be divided into Britiſh, Roman, Saxon, Daniſh, and Normanic.

The chief Britiſh antiquities, like thoſe of moſt other nations, are ſuch as have a connection with the religious inſtitutions of the early inhabitants of the country. They conſiſt of circles of ſtones, which were probably places of worſhip in the times of the Druids. The moſt celebrated of thoſe is that called Stonehenge, which is ſituated on Saliſbury Plain, ſix miles north of the city of that name, in Wiltſhire. It is a pile of huge ſtones, concerning the origin, uſe, and ſtructure of which, antiquaries are much divided in opinion. The name *Stonehenge* is purely Saxon, and ſignifies *hanging-ſtones*, or a *ſtone gallows*. It probably alludes to the diſpoſition of ſeveral of the ſtones

ſtones of which this extraordinary fabric conſiſts. Some, however, conjecture the name to be *Stonhengeſt*, and ſuppoſe the ſtones to be a monument erected by Ambroſius, a Britiſh King, in memory of the Britons ſlain at or near this place, by Hengiſt the Saxon. But Dr. Stukely, who has written a learned treatiſe on this piece of antiquity, endeavours to ſhew that the original name of Stone-henge was *Ambres*, whence he ſuppoſes the ancient town of Ambreſbury to have been denominated. The ancient Britons called it Choir-gaur, which Dr. Stukely is of opinion ſignifies the great church, or cathedral. The Choir-gaur of the ancient Britons was by the monks Latinized Chorea Gigantum, or the *Giant's Dance*, a name ſuited to the ſuperſtitious notions they entertained of its ſtructure.

Stone-henge conſiſts of the remains of two circular and two oval ranges of rough ſtones, having one common centre. The outer circle is a hundred and eight feet in diameter, and when entire, conſiſted of thirty upright ſtones, ſeventeen of which are yet ſtanding, and ſeven more lying upon the ground, either whole or in pieces. The

upright ſtones are from eighteen to twenty feet high, from ſix to ſeven feet broad, and about three feet thick. Being placed at the diſtance of about three feet and a half from one another, they are connected at top by impoſts, or ſtones laid acroſs, with tenons fitted to mortiſes in the uprights. Of the impoſts, or croſs-ſtones, ſix are yet ſtanding, each of which is ſeven feet long, and about three feet and a half thick. The upright ſtones have been wrought a little with a chiſſel, and are ſomething tapered towards the top, but the impoſts are quite plain. All the uprights are fixed in a kind of ſockets, dug in a chalky ſoil, with ſmall flints rammed between the ſtone and the ſocket.

The inner circle, which never had any impoſts, is a little more than eight feet from the inſide of the outward one, and conſiſted originally of forty ſtones, the general proportions of which are half the dimenſions of the above-mentioned uprights every way. Of the forty ſtones which originally compoſed this circle, about nineteen remain, and of theſe only eleven are ſtanding. The ſpace between the two circles

cles is three hundred feet in circumference, and from this ſpot the ſtructure has an awful effect on the beholders.

At the diſtance of about nine feet from the inner circle, is the outer oval range, which is ſuppoſed to be the principal part of the work, and by moſt writers is called the Cell, or the Adytum. The ſtones that compoſe it are ſtupendous, ſome of them meaſuring thirty feet in height. This range conſiſts of five compages, or trilithons, as they are ſometimes called, being formed of two uprights, with an impoſt at top, like the outer circle; and of theſe compages three are entire, but two ſomewhat decayed. The inner oval is compoſed of twenty ſtones, each about ſix feet high; and near the eaſtern extremity of this oval, is a ſtone of coarſe blue marble, about ſixteen feet long, and four broad, which lies flat upon the ground, is ſomewhat preſſed into it, and ſuppoſed to have been an altar.

This work is encloſed by a deep trench, near thirty feet broad, and upwards of a hundred feet from the outer circle. Over this trench are three entrances, the moſt conſiderable of which faces the north-eaſt.

At

At each entrance, on the outſide of the trench, there ſeems to have been two huge ſtones ſet up in the manner of a gate; and parallel to theſe, on the inſide, two other ſtones, of a ſmaller ſize. The whole number of ſtones originally compoſing this ſtructure, is computed to be exactly a hundred and forty.

The rude magnitude of Stone-henge has rendered it the admiration of all ages; and the uſe and origin of this work has been the ſubject of various conjectures. The opinion moſt generally received however is, that it was a temple of the Druids, built, as Dr. Stukeley thinks, before the Belgæ came into Britain, and not long after Cambyſes invaded Egypt, where that Prince committed ſuch horrid outrages among the prieſts and inhabitants in general, that they diſperſed themſelves into all quarters of the world, when ſome of them, it is imagined, arrived in Britain.

The heads, of oxen, deer, and various animals, with wood-aſhes, and other apparent relics of ſacrifices, have been dug up in and about theſe ruins. Around them is alſo a great number of barrows, or monumental

mental heaps of earth thrown up in the form of a bell, and each enclofed with a trench, from a hundred and five, to a hundred and feventy feet in diameter. The barrows extend to a confiderable diftance, but are all fo placed, as to be feen from the fuppofed temple. In fuch barrows as have been opened, fkeletons, or the remains of burnt bones have been found. In one of them was an urn, containing afhes, fome bones, and other fubftances, which the funeral pile had not confumed.

Upon the whole, the moft probable conjecture is, that Stone-henge has been a temple in fome remote period; and antiquaries muft ever regret, that a table of tin, with an infcription, which was difcocovered here in the reign of Henry VIII. and might probably have confirmed this opinion, fhould not be preferved. But as the characters were not underftood by fuch as were confulted upon the occafion, the plate was deftroyed, or at leaft thrown by and loft.

Monuments of the fame kind are to be met with in many parts of England, as well

well as in Scotland and the Isles; particularly in Anglesey, which appears to have been the last asylum of Druidical superstition in the west.

Of the Roman antiquities in England, the most conspicuous are the vestiges of roads, many of which serve as foundations to our present highways. The remains of Roman camps are discernible in various parts of the country. There is one in particular, very little defaced, near Dorchester, where likewise is a Roman amphitheatre; but the most amazing monument of the Roman power in England, is the Wall of Severus, commonly called the Pict's Wall. It begins at Tinmouth, on the eastern coast, and running westward through Northumberland and Cumberland, terminates in the Soleway Frith, a course of about eighty miles in length. At first, this prætenture consisted only of stakes and turf, with a ditch; but Severus built it with stone forts, and turrets at proper distances; so that intelligence could be speedily communicated along the whole of its extent. It was attended from one end to the other by a deep ditch, or vallum, on the north side,

side, and on the south, a military highway. In some places, the wall, the vallum, and the road, are plainly discernible; and the latter has been employed as a foundation for a modern work of the same kind. Other Roman antiquities in England consist chiefly of altars, urns, and monumental inscriptions; and many private cabinets, as well as public repositories, contain a vast number of Roman arms, coins, fibulæ, and a variety of domestic utensils.

The Saxon antiquities in this country are mostly those of ecclesiastical edifices, and places of strength. At Winchester is shewn the celebrated Round Table of King Arthur, with the names of his knights. The antiquity of this relic is disputed by several writers, but if not of British, it is undoubtedly of Saxon origin. The cathedral of Winchester was used as the burying-place of several Saxon kings. Many monuments of Saxon antiquity present themselves all over the kingdom, though they are often not to be distinguished from those of Norman erection; and numerous Saxon charters, signed by the king and his nobles,

with

with a plain crofs, inftead of their names, are to be met with in different parts.

The Danifh erections, which are alfo numerous, are hardly difcernible from the Saxon. The form of their camps is circular, and they are generally built upon eminences, but their forts are fquare.

All England abounds with monuments built under the reign of princes of Norman extraction.

Wales, the refuge of the ancient Britons, likewife difplays many antiquities. Several of its caftles are ftupendoufly large; and in fome, the remains of Roman architecture are plainly difcernible. Some appear to be partly Britifh and partly Roman. Among other artificial curiofities, is King Offa's Dyke, which is faid to have been a boundary between the Saxons and the Welch, or Britons. Charphilly Caftle in Glamorganfhire, is accounted the largeft in Great Britain, next to Windfor; and the remains of it fhew that it has been likewife a beautiful fabric. One half of a round tower has fallen quite down, but the other overhangs its bafis more than nine feet, and is

deemed as great a curiosity as the leaning tower of Pisa in Italy.

Among the natural curiosities in Wales, I shall only mention the high mountain of Penmanmawr, in Carnarvonshire. Across the edge of it the public road is so remarkably situated, that it occasions no small terror to many travellers. On one hand, the impending rock seems ready every minute to crush them to pieces; while the vast precipice below, which hangs over the sea, is so hideous, and till very lately, when a wall was raised on the side of the road, full of danger, that one false step would have been productive of fatal consequence.

I have reserved for the conclusion of my letter an account of one of the greatest antiquities in the world, and which now lies deposited in the University of Oxford; I mean the Parian Chronicle, otherwise called the Arundelian marbles.

The Parian Chronicle, engraved on a marble tablet of considerable extent, is supposed to have been written 264 years before the Christian æra. In its perfect state, it contained a chronological detail of the

principal events of Greece, during a period of 1318 years, beginning with Cecrops, before Christ 1582 years, and ending with the archonship of Diognetus. But the chronicle of the last ninety years is lost; so that the part now remaining ends at the archonship of Diotimus, 354 years before the birth of Christ; and in this fragment the inscription is at present so much corroded and effaced, that the sense can only be discovered by very learned and industrious antiquaries, or, perhaps more properly speaking, supplied by their conjectures. The date of the Chronicle coincides with the twenty-first year of the reign of Ptolemy Philadelphus in Egypt, the splendid age of the Poëtarum Pleias, and the reign in which chronologers usually place the Seventy Interpreters.

This Chronicle, and many other relics of antiquity, were purchased in Asia Minor, in Greece, or in the islands of the Archipelago, by Mr. William Petty, who in the year 1624 was sent by the Earl of Arundel, for the purpose of making such collections for him in the East. They were brought into England about the beginning of the

year 1627, and placed in the gardens belonging to Arundel-houſe in London. Soon after their arrival they excited a general curioſity, and were viewed by many inquiſitive and learned men; among others, by Sir Robert Cotton, who went immediately to Selden, and entreated him to exert his abilities in explaining the Greek inſcriptions. Selden readily complied with his requeſt; but deſired the aſſiſtance of their common friends, Patrick Young, or, as he ſtyled himſelf in Latin, Patricius Junius, and Richard James.

The next morning, theſe gentlemen met in Arundel-gardens, and commenced their operations, by cleaning and examining the marble, containing the league, which the cities of Smyrna and Magneſia entered into, in favour of Seleucus Callinicus, king of Syria. Afterwards, they proceeded to the Parian Chronicle, and other inſcriptions.

The following year Selden publiſhed a ſmall volume in quarto, including twenty-nine Greek, and ten Latin inſcriptions, copied from the marbles; with a tranſlation, and a commentary.

In

In the turbulent reign of Charles I. and the subsequent usurpation, Arundel-house was often deserted by the illustrious owners; and in their absence, some of the marbles, which were deposited in the gardens, were defaced or broken; and others either stolen, or used for the ordinary purposes of architecture. The upper part of the chronological marble, containing almost half of the inscription, is said to have been worked up in repairing a chimney in Arundel-house: but a copy of it has been luckily preserved by Selden. In the year 1667, the Hon. Henry Howard, grandson of the first collector, on the application of John Evelyn, Esq. presented these curious remains of antiquity to the University of Oxford.

LETTER XII.

CROSSING from England the Iriſh ſea, we ſoon reach the ſhores of that country, which it has become uſual with many to denominate the Siſter Kingdom. The climate of Ireland differs little from that of England, excepting that it is more moiſt, and more frequently productive of rain. The ſoil in general is rocky, but in many parts extremely fertile; and requires only a greater attention to agriculture, to improve its natural advantages. The bogs of Ireland, however, are very extenſive; that of Allen extends no leſs than eighty miles, and is computed to contain three hundred thouſand acres. There are others alſo which occupy large tracts; and bogs of ſmaller extent are ſcattered over the whole kingdom: but it has been obſerved, that there are in general not more than are wanted

wanted for peats and turfs, the common fuel of the country, where wood and coal are ſcarce.

Many theories have been invented to account for theſe phenomena in the natural hiſtory of this country. It is obſervable that in theſe bogs, various roots of trees, ſome of them of a great ſize, are generally found, and uſually at the bottom; the common kinds being oak, fir, and yew. The roots of theſe trees are faſt in the earth. Some of the trees ſeem to be broken off, others have the appearance of being cut; but more of them bear the marks of fire. Under ſome bogs, of conſiderable depth, are yet to be ſeen the furrows of land once ploughed. The black bog is a ſolid weighty maſs, which cuts almoſt like butter, and upon examination, appears to reſemble rotten wood. Under the red bogs is always a ſtratum, not quite ſo ſolid as the former ſpecies, but makes as good fuel. Both kinds of bog are covered with a ſpongy vegetable moſs, which is thicker on the ſurface of the black. The ſpontaneous growth is moſt commonly heath, with ſome bog-myrtle, ruſhes, and a little

ſedgy graſs. The depth of the bogs is various, many of them having been fathomed to that of fifty feet, and ſome are ſaid to be yet deeper. They differ extremely from the bogs in England in the inequality of the ſurface; the Iriſh being rarely level, but riſing into hills.

Ireland rears vaſt numbers of black cattle and ſheep; and the prodigious quantities of butter and ſalt proviſions, exported to all parts of the world, afford the ſtrongeſt proof of the natural fertility of the Iriſh ſoil. In ſome of the northern parts of the kingdom, hemp and flax are greatly cultivated; from the latter of which the country has, for many years, been famous for the linen manufacture.

A notion has been induſtriouſly propagated, that Ireland is entirely exempted from noxious animals; but this opinion ſeems not to be founded upon any juſt obſervation of her natural hiſtory, which, ſo far as my enquiries have reached, is ſimilar to that of the neighbouring countries.

Dublin, the capital of Ireland, ſtands about ſeven miles from the ſea, at the bottom of a ſpacious bay, to which it gives

name

name, upon the river Liffey, which divides it almoſt into two equal parts. In point of magnitude, and the number of inhabitants, it may be regarded as the ſecond city in his Majeſty's dominions. The encreaſe of it within the laſt thirty years is incredible. Over the Liffey are two handſome bridges, lately built, of ſtone, in imitation of that of Weſtmiſter; beſides three others of an inferior kind. There has likewiſe been erected a new exchange, which is an elegant ſtructure of white ſtone, richly embelliſhed with pilaſters of the Corinthian order, a cupola and other ornaments.

The parliament houſe, which was completed about ſixty years ago, at the expence of forty-thouſand pounds, is a ſuperb ſtructure, of the Ionic order. The portico, in particular, is much admired; and the manner in which the building is lighted, diſcovers great ingenuity in architecture. But one of the moſt laudable and public ſpirited undertakings that diſtinguiſh the preſent age, is the building a ſtone wall, about the breadth of a moderate ſtreet, of a proportionable height, and three miles in length

length, to confine the channel of the bay, and to ſhelter veſſels in ſtormy weather.

In ſpeaking of the public buildings of this kingdom, one's attention is excited by the numerous barracks where the ſoldiers are lodged. This meaſure has, by ſome, been conſidered as unfavorable to liberty; but it contributes equally to the eaſe and conveniency of the inhabitants, which are circumſtances eſſentially connected with the enjoyment of public freedom. It muſt likewiſe be admitted that the refractory diſpoſition of the lower claſſes of the Iriſh in many parts, renders expedient ſuch means as are calculated for the ſpeedy ſuppreſſion of any tumults which may ariſe. The great ſource of political calamity in Ireland is the ignorance of the people, the bulk of whom are under the influence of Romiſh prieſts, who inſtil into their minds the moſt pernicious prejudices, both civil and religious. But it is to be hoped that this evil will abate with the growing proſperity of the country.

In the interior parts of the kingdom, ſome of the old uncouth cuſtoms ſtill prevail, particularly their funeral howlings; but the

ſame remains of barbariſm may be traced in ſome countries on the Continent. Their diſorderly meetings on Sunday afternoon, with dancing to the bag-pipe, and the brawlings in which they commonly terminate, are offenſive to every ſtranger. My firſt viſit to Dublin happened on a Sunday evening; and though I had, from previous information, in ſome degree anticipated the ſcene, I really was ſtruck with equal aſtoniſhment and diſguſt. The extremely tattered, or naked condition of the lower people, the barbarous fierceneſs of their manner, the jargon, the oaths which they uttered, the ſavage tone of their exclamations, and the general inebriety which ſeemed to prevail, afforded altogether ſuch a picture of wretchedneſs and profligacy as I had never before ſeen realized in any country. The celebrated Dean of St. Patrick's has, you know, been charged with miſanthropy: whether juſtly or not I leave to others to determine; but it muſt be owned, that theſe odious examples of human nature in a ſtate of barbariſm, of which he was daily an eye witneſs, afford a ſtrong apology for prejudices the moſt

unfavorable to the ſpecies. But let me at the ſame time obſerve, that to counter-balance ſuch prejudices, he enjoyed the friendſhip of men who were ornaments of the age in which they lived. He might tranſport himſelf in imagination to Twickenham, or Batterſea, and partake with Pope and Bolingbroke a flow of ſentiments congenial with his own.

In various parts of Ireland we meet with caverns, romantic proſpects, cataracts, and other pleaſing and uncommon natural objects. Of artificial rarities, the chief are the round Pharos, or ſtone towers, on different parts of the coaſts. They are ſuppoſed to have been erected by the Danes and Norwegians in their piratical incurſions, to ſerve them as light-houſes or beacons.

The greateſt natural curioſity in Ireland is the Giant's Cauſeway, in the county of Antrim, about eight miles from Colerain. It is compoſed of pillars all of angular ſhapes, from three ſides to eight. Each pillar conſiſts of ſeveral joints or ſtones, lying one upon another, from ſix inches to about one foot in thickneſs. The pillars are from one to two feet in diameter, and generally

conſiſt

conſiſt of about forty joints. From the Cliff where it begins, it extends upwards of four hundred feet, till it is loſt in the Sea.

The Cliffs themſelves exhibit likewiſe an extraordinary appearance. From the bottom, which is of black ſtone, to the height of about ſixty feet, they are divided at equal diſtances by ſtripes of a reddiſh ſtone, about four inches in thickneſs, reſembling a cement. Over this lies another ſtratum of the ſame black ſtone, with a ſtratum of the red five inches thick. Then follows a ſtratum of the red ſtone twenty feet deep, over which is a ſtratum of upright pillars. Above this lies another ſtratum of black ſtones twenty feet high; above this again another ſtratum of upright pillars, riſing in ſome places to the tops of the Cliffs, in others not ſo high; and in others again above it, where they are called the Chimnies. The face of theſe Cliffs extends about three Engliſh miles.

A difference of opinion has prevailed with reſpect to this extraordinary phenomenon, ſome imagining it to be really the work of human art, and others conjecturing with

with greater probability, that it is the effect of natural operation. When we consider every circumstance relative to this production, such as its total inaptitude to any useful purpose, and the analogy which it bears to other objects of a similar kind, which have never been regarded as factitious, we cannot hesitate a moment to join in opinion with those who ascribe it entirely to natural causes; and this seems to be fully confirmed by the appearance of the Cliffs.

It reflects honor on the memory of Queen Elizabeth, that she founded a university at Dublin, before which time the advancement of learning in Ireland must have been greatly obstructed. This seminary consists now of two squares, and is named Trinity-College. Three sides of one of the squares are of brick, and the fourth is a superb library; but being built of bad stone, it is unfortunately mouldering away. The inside is commodious, and embellished with busts of several ancient and modern worthies. The New Square, three sides of which have been built more than thirty-years by parliamentary bounty, and thence called Parliament-Square, is of hewn stone;

having the front of it towards the City of Dublin ornamented with pilasters, festoons, and other architectural decorations.

Learning seems to have been cultivated in Ireland at an early period; though we cannot admit the hyperbolical assertion of one of her historians, that the Irish appear to have been, from the most remote antiquity, a polished people; and that with propriety they may be called the "Fathers of Letters." We are even told, by the same authority, that Egypt received arts and letters from Niulus the Phænician, who is represented as the great ancestor of the Irish nation. But this is repugnant both to analogy and the most credible historical documents. Little doubt can be entertained that Ireland was first peopled from Great-Britain. According to the most general account, St. Patrick, the titular Saint of Ireland, was a Scotsman; and no literary monuments have yet been discovered in Ireland previous to the introduction of the Christian religion by him in the fourth century. The evidence, therefore, of all transactions preceding that period, rests entirely on the credit of Irish

bards,

bards, upon whoſe authority, in matters of fact, it would be very abſurd to rely.

In modern times, however, the Iriſh have undoubtedly diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the republic of letters. Archbiſhop Uſher ſtands high in the liſt of literary fame. Dean Swift, who will ever be renowned in the walk of humour and ſatire, was alſo a native of this country; to which are likewiſe to be aſcribed the reſpectable names of Farquhar, Sir Richard Steele, Biſhop Berkley, Parnel, Sterne, and Goldſmith.

LETTER

LETTER XIII.

RETURNING to the continent, I ſhall take my route by France, as the neareſt in ſituation to England. But, Good God!—how much is it changed ſince firſt I viſited that country! I then beheld it a great and united nation, warm in its attachment to the king, and flouriſhing in the bleſſings of commerce. No more now a kingdom, it has torn up monarchy by the roots, and carried to ſuch a length its deteſtation of the ancient government, as to raze even the minuteſt memorial of regal power from the annals of the nation. Not content with the extinction of the crown, and even of the life of the ſovereign, the people, in the frenzy of revolution, have proceeded to the impiety, unparalleled in modern times, of attempting to aboliſh the worſhip, and I know not whether I may

not add, to deny the exiſtence of God himſelf! Through what a dèluge of blood have they waded, to eſtabliſh a ſpecies of temporary government, neither ſuited to the extent of the ſtate, nor to their own inherent diſpoſitions! But I am weary of the proſpect. Let us turn our attention from the people, towards the country itſelf, which forms an extraordinary contraſt.

France, from its great extent, comprehends a variety of climates; but though the air is more clear and ſettled than in England, it is not, upon the whole, eſpecially in the interior parts, more ſalubrious than that of our own country. In the ſouthern provinces, the ſummers are ſometimes immoderately hot, and in the northern, the winters are more intenſely cold than with us; the inhabitants, at the ſame time, being not ſo well ſupplied with firing, which in France is chiefly of wood. The country, however, is happy in an excellent ſoil, and the animal and vegetable productions are found in great plenty.

The country is watered by the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, the Seine, and other conſiderable rivers; the advantages

of

of which, in point of commerce, are wonderfully improved by the artificial rivers and canals, which form the chief glory of the reign of Lewis XIV. That of Languedoc was intended for a communication between the Ocean and the Mediterranean, for the ſpeedier paſſage of the French fleet; but though carried on at an immenſe expence, for a hundred miles, over hills and vallies, and even through a mountain in one place, it has not anſwered that purpoſe. By the canal of Calais, travellers eaſily paſs thence by water to St. Omer, Graveline, Dunkirk, and other places. The canal of Orleans is another noble work, and runs a courſe of eighteen leagues, to the immenſe benefit of the adjacent parts of the country. Beſides theſe, there are other canals, which render the inland navigation of France extremely commodious.

The reign of Francis I. was auſpicious to the literature of the country; and many learned men then diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their writings: among whom was the celebrated Rabelais. But Lewis XIV. may be conſidered as the Auguſtus of France. The protection he gave to letters, and the

 penſions

penſions he beſtowed on learned men, both at home and abroad, which did not however amount to above twelve thouſand pounds per annum, have gained him more glory than all the military enterprizes, upon which he expended ſo many millions. Then aroſe among others, the famous tragic poets, Racine and Corneille; the former diſtinguiſhed for ſkill in moving the paſſions, and the latter for peculiar elevation of ſentiment and language. The facetious Moliere ſhone conſpicuous in comedy; and in works of ſatire and criticiſm Boileau diſplayed claſſical abilities. As a hiſtorian De Thou is entitled to high praiſe. The writings of Paſcal place him amongſt the moſt eminent benefactors to religion; and the works of the amiable Archbiſhop of Cambray breathe alike the dictates of morals and the genius of poetry. Monteſquieu, as a political philoſopher, may be ſaid to be unequalled. I ſay nothing of D'Argens, Voltaire, and others who have written miſcellaneous productions. Their works are comparatively recent and generally known.

It has been remarked that ſculpture is in general better underſtood in France than

in moſt countries of Europe. Their treatiſes on ſhip-building, and engineering ſtand unrivalled in didactic obſervation; but happily, in practice they are both outdone by our own country.

Few countries, if we except Italy, diſplay more valuable remains of antiquity than France. Some of the French antiquities belong to the time of the Celts, and conſequently, compared to them, thoſe of Rome are modern. At Rheims, and in other parts, are to be ſeen triumphal arches; but the moſt entire is at Orange, erected on account of the victory obtained over the Cimbri and Teutones, by Caius Marius and Luctatius Catulus. After Gaul was reduced to a Roman province, the Romans induſtriouſly adorned it with magnificent edifices, both civil and ſacred; ſome of which are more entire than any to be met with in Italy itſelf. The ruins of an amphitheatre are to be found in Chalons, and likewiſe at Vienne.

Niſmes however, exhibits the moſt valuable remains of ancient architecture of any place in France. The famous Pont du Garde was raiſed in the

Auguſtan age by the Roman colony of Niſmes, to convey a ſtream of water between the two mountains, for the uſe of that city, and is at this day as entire as any modern building. It conſiſts of three bridges, or tiers of arches one above another. The height is a hundred and ſeventy-four feet, and the length extends to ſeven hundred and twenty-three. Many other ruins of antiquity are found at Niſmes; but the chief are, the Temple of Diana, the veſtiges of which are ſtill remaining; the Amphitheatre, which is thought to be the fineſt and moſt entire of the kind of any in Europe; but, above all, the houſe erected by the emperor Adrian, called the Maiſon Carrée. The architecture and ſculpture of this building are exquiſitely beautiful, and, what is extraordinary, are very little affected by the ravages of time. At Paris, in La Rue de la Harpe, may be ſeen the remains of a palace, or thermæ, ſuppoſed to have been built by Julian, ſurnamed the Apoſtate, about the year 356, after the ſame models as the baths of Diocleſian. The remains of this ancient edifice conſiſt of many arches, and within them a large ſaloon. It is fabricated of a

kind of maſtic, the compoſition of which is now unknown, intermixed with ſmall ſquare pieces of free-ſtone and bricks.

At Arles, in Provence, is to be ſeen an obeliſk of Oriental granite, fifty-two feet high, and ſeven feet diameter at the baſe, but all of one ſtone. Roman temples are frequent in France. The moſt remarkable are in Burgundy and Guienne. The paſſage cut through the middle of the rock near Briançon in Dauphiny, is thought to be a Roman work, if not of greater antiquity; and the round buckler of maſſy ſilver, relative to Scipio, taken out of the Rhone in 1665, is imagined to be coeval with that great general. It is twenty inches in diameter, weighs twenty-one pounds, and contains the celebrated anecdote relative to Scipio's continence.

It would be endleſs to recount the different monuments of antiquity to be found in France, particularly in the cabinets of the curious; and the collection muſt be greatly encreaſed by the depredations which the French have lately committed among the moſt celebrated of the portable antiquities at Rome. It is, however, the pride of conqueſt, more than any taſte for the arts,

that has excited them to this outrage on the prescriptive rights of that capital; and should those elegant specimens of Roman genius escape the peculation of their new possessors, they will, in addition to their former purpose, remain to future ages, monuments of the violence and rapine which actuated the revolutionary banditti of France.

It may perhaps be imagined, by the political enthusiasts of that country, that the celebrated rarities of ancient Rome will transfer, like a palladium, to the new republic, the seat of sovereign empire in the west; or, if their ambition cannot be gratified with so flattering a distinction, that they will at least attract to Paris the curious of other nations, by the magnet of Roman antiquity. In the latter of these notions, their expectation indeed may be fulfilled; and a democratical constitution of citizens will doubtless require some adventitious attraction, to compensate the lustre of which the nation has been deprived by the desolating hand of equality.

Paris, with all its advantages, will not bear a comparison with London, in the

more eſſential circumſtances of public proſperity and comfort. By theſe I mean a thriving foreign and domeſtic trade, the cleanneſs of the ſtreets, the elegance of the houſes, eſpecially within, the plenty of water, and that of a better quality than the Seine. The Pariſians, however, as well as the natives of France in general, are temperate in drinking; but whether from any regard to ſobriety, as a virtue, or from a natural propenſity to more fantaſtic modes of diſſipation, I ſhall not take upon me to determine. Happy were it for them, had they been as little diſpoſed to intoxication from the Dæmon of civil rage, as they are from the exceſſes of Bacchus.

Though Paris and Verſailles be no new objects to you, I cannot conclude my letter without giving ſome account of them.

Paris is uſually divided into three parts; the largeſt of which, called the Town, ſtands on the north ſide of the river Seine; the City, which is the moſt ancient part, conſiſts of three ſmall iſlands in the middle of the river; and the other part, or the Univerſity, is ſeated on the ſouth ſide of the Seine, having in it ſeveral little hills. The

whole

whole town is of a circular form, and about eighteen miles in circumference; but tho', according to this computation it occupies more ground than London, it is not near ſo populous, the inhabitants of Paris not amounting to more than ſeven hundred thouſand, whereas thoſe of the former are ſuppoſed to exceed this number, in the proportion of almoſt a third part.

The houſes of Paris are built of white hewn ſtone, five, ſix, or ſeven ſtories high; and there are a great many palaces, with beautiful gardens, which formerly belonged to the nobility; but being ſhut up from the ſtreets by high dead walls, they rather increaſe the bulk, than add to the embelliſhments of the city. The ſtreets are generally narrow: till within theſe few years there was no where any pavement for foot paſſengers; and they were illuminated by lamps ſuſpended on ropes placed acroſs.

About twelve miles ſouth-weſt of Paris ſtands Verſailles, ſituated on an eminence in the midſt of a fine ſporting country, and encompaſſed with hills. It conſiſted originally of a Caſtle built by Lewis XIIIth. as a hunting ſeat, which was afterwards

converted

converted into a magnificent palace, by Lewis XIV. who alſo annexed to it a handſome town. The avenue leading to the palace divides the town into two parts; one of which is called Old Verſailles, the other the New Town. On the ſide towards Paris this avenue forms three viſtos, that in the middle being ſixty feet wide, and the others thirty feet each, all planted with elms.

The great court of the palace is four hundred and eighty feet long, with a large pavilion at each corner. It is encloſed with an iron baluſtrade and two large buildings that form the wings on each ſide, which have balconies ſupported by columns, and adorned with fine ſtatues. Theſe wings with the pavilions, ſerve for offices, and have behind them others for the ſame purpoſe.

From this court is an aſcent of three marble ſteps, into a large landing place, and thence by five more into a little court paved with black and white marble; in the middle of which is a marble fountain and baſon, with ſtatues of copper, gilt. The front and wings are of brick and free-ſtone, adorned with marble buſts and brackets; and before this front is a balcony, ſupported

by

by eight marble columns of the Doric order, with red and white ſpots like jaſper, and their baſes and capitals of white marble. In the two angles of the wings in the front, are hanging pedeſtals, which ſupport two cloſets, encompaſſed with gilt iron caſes; and underneath are two baſons of white marble in the form of ſhells, where young Tritons ſpout water. The middle building has three gilt iron doors in the porch, with apartments on the right and left.

On quitting the great court, through an open porch, we aſcend by a ſtair-caſe eighty one feet long, and thirty broad. From the porch an entrance leads to two painted halls. The cieling of one of them is ſupported by eight marble columns of the Doric order, with red and white veins. The capitals and baſes are of a greeniſh colour, and the columns, of which there are four on each ſide, divide the hall into three parts. On the ſides oppoſite to each column, are pilaſters that ſupport a cornice under a platform; and fronting the windows are niches with ſtatues.

The other hall is ſupported by twelve columns of the Ionic order, which have

behind

behind them marble pilaſters, with red, black, purple, and yellow veins, their capitals and baſes being of white marble. From this we enter a third hall of the ſame dimenſions, the cieling of which is an octagon, with twelve double pedeſtals of fine marble, on which are placed emblematical figures of the twelve months, in gilt copper. All the parts not hung with tapeſtry are lined with marble.

The royal apartments are extremely magnificent, and richly ornamented with ſculptures and paintings. Their furniture, even to the bedſteads, baluſtrades, and rails, conſiſt chiefly of maſſy plate.

Such was the palace of Verſailles in the days of regal ſplendor; but in what condition it is at preſent, or to what uſe appropriated, I know not. It was ſaid, ſome time ago, that, owing to the deſolated ſtate of the place, the valuable tapeſtry was greatly injured by rats. The maſſy plate, without doubt, has become the prey of the rapacious revolutioniſts; who we may be aſſured, have indulged themſelves in every democratical outrage, againſt a fabric which had long been the favorite habitation of royalty.

CHAP.

LETTER XIV.

QUITTING the ancient limits of France, we ſtep immediately into a country where we find the revolutionary ſyſtem operating with all its concomitant train of violence and diſorder. Here the Emperor is relinquiſhing his hereditary dominions; there the Stadtholder is abdicating an eſtabliſhed government. On one hand, we behold ten extenſive provinces, which had been confirmed to the houſe of Auſtria by a long ſucceſſion of ages; on the other, a whole confederated heptarchy, which has withſtood the aſſaults of the ocean, by the ſtrength of its dykes; all giving way to the irreſiſtible inundation of French principles and politics. On the waving of the three-colourd flag, as by the magical wand of Circe, ſee infatuated provinces dance to the frantic

frantic ſound of *Ca, ira*; while, with a fatality, to which nothing but popular deluſion could be blind, wherever the tree of liberty is planted, that inſtant, ſlavery takes place. We thenceforth behold thoſe people nothing more than the miſerable vaſſals of uſurpation; bereaved of their independence, deſpoiled of their property, and reduced to maintain a ſhadow of political exiſtence, at the mercy of the citizens of France. Theſe are the precious fruits that enſue from the hug of fraternity! from the deceitful embraces of men who have laboured to eſtabliſh their own power by a ſeries of enormous crimes; who have induſtriouſly rent aſunder the ſacred bands of civil ſociety, and impiouſly trampled on all laws both divine and human.

The ſeventeen provinces have obtained the general name of the Netherlands, or Low Countries, from their ſituation in reſpect of Germany. The northern contains the ſeven United Provinces, uſually known by the name of Holland; and the ſouthern, thoſe which were hitherto the Auſtrian, and French Netherlands.

The

The former of theſe countries is only a narrow ſlip of low ſwampy land, lying between the mouths of ſeveral great rivers, and what the induſtry of the inhabitants has gained from the ſea by means of dykes, which have been raiſed, and are ſtill ſupported, with incredible labour and expence. On account of this ſituation, the air of the United Provinces is foggy and groſs, until it is purified by the froſt in winter; when the eaſt wind uſually ſets in for four months, and their harbours are frozen up. The ſoil is unfavorable to vegetation, but, by the induſtry of the inhabitants in making canals, it is rendered fit for paſture, and in many places even for tillage. The whole face of the country, when viewed from a tower or ſteeple, (for there is no natural eminence,) has the appearance of a continued marſh or bog, drained, at certain diſtances, by innumerable ditches; and many of the canals which in that country ſerve as high roads, are in the ſummer months no better than offenſive ſtagnated waters.

The chief rivers are the Rhine, the Maeſe, the Scheld, and the Vecht. There

are few good harbours in the United Provinces. The beſt are thoſe of Rotterdam, Helvoetſluys, and Fluſhing: for that of Amſterdam, though one of the largeſt and ſafeſt in Europe, has a bar at the entrance of it, over which large veſſels cannot paſs without being lightened. But with all the natural diſadvantages of the Seven United Provinces, they are perhaps the beſt peopled of any ſpot of the ſame extent in the world.

Though the inhabitants are in general of a phlegmatic temperament, Holland has the honor of producing many men diſtinguiſhed for their genius and learning. At the head of theſe ſtand Eraſmus and Grotius; and in medicine, the celebrated Boerhaave.—Haerlem diſputes with the Germans the invention of printing; and the moſt elegant editions of the claſſics have come from the preſſes in this country.

The greateſt curioſities in the United Provinces, abſtracted from thoſe in the muſeums, are the prodigious dykes, conſtructed by the Dutch to guard their country againſt inundation, from which it formerly ſuffered

much. Some of theſe are ſtupendous moles, and hardly to be equalled.

Amſterdam, the capital of Holland, is thought to be, next to London, the moſt commercial city in the world. Its conveniency for trade, and the grandeur of its public works, are almoſt beyond deſcription. It labours, however, under two great diſadvantages; namely, thoſe of bad air, and the want of freſh wholeſome water, which obliges the inhabitants to preſerve the rain water in reſervoirs.

Rotterdam is next to the preceding in reſpect of commerce and wealth; but contains not of inhabitants above a fourth part of the number. Leyden and Utrecht are both cities, and celebrated for their univerſities. The ſeat of government in Holland, was formerly at the Hague, which, though but a village, is diſtinguiſhed by the magnificence and beauty of its buildings, and during the time of the Stadtholderian conſtitution, was regarded as the emporium of politics.

So great is the induſtry of the Dutch, there is ſcarcely a manufacture which they

do

do not carry on, or a ſtate in the world to which their traffic does not extend: I ſpeak of the period before the commencement of the preſent war. In this they are favored by the populouſneſs of their country, the cheapneſs of their labour, and above all, the water carriage, which, by means of their canals, gives them advantages beyond all other nations. It is doubted, however, whether the riches and luxury of individuals have not damped the general induſtry of the inhabitants; for there is reaſon to think that their commerce, navigation, manufactures, and fiſheries have not been for ſeveral years in ſo flouriſhing a ſtate as they were in the beginning of the preſent century.

The ſouthern Netherlands are a beautiful tract of country, as well as remarkable, in many parts, for the richneſs of the ſoil. Flanders alone has been reckoned the granary of France, Germany, and ſometimes likewiſe of our own country. The ſociety of Jeſuits formerly produced the moſt learned men in the Auſtrian Low Countries, in which they had many comfortable ſettlements. Their works related chiefly

to theology, and the civil and canon law; but among their publications, were likewiſe latin poems, and plays. Strada is diſtinguiſhed for the elegance of his compoſitions, both as a poet and hiſtorian. The Flemiſh painters and ſculptors have likewiſe great merit, and form a ſchool by themſelves. The works of Rubens and Vandyke are celebrated wherever painting is known.

Some Roman monuments of temples and other buildings are to be found in theſe provinces; but the ſcenes moſt intereſting to a Britiſh traveller are thoſe where the valour of our anceſtors ſhone forth with unparalleled luſtre, in the reign of Queen Anne. I formerly ſurveyed thoſe memorable fields with a degree of enthuſiaſm; but were I again to viſit that country, it is probable that the ſentiments of triumph would be mixed with reflections of a different nature. I ſhould be filled with regret, to behold that all the blood which had been ſpilt, and all the wonderful exertions of courage and conduct, which were diſplayed, could not perpetuate the object of our glorious efforts even to the end of the century. We ought not, however, from contingent

contingent events, to condemn the policy which actuated the British nation at that period. Let modern patriots affect to ridicule the balance of power as a chimerical idea; but those who estimate more justly the interests of nations, will admit that the aggrandizement of any one power beyond a degree compatible with the interests of others, must ever prove highly dangerous to the general safety. Since the days of Charlemagne, the truth of this proposition was never more evident than at present.— View France, which was formerly confined towards the north, within her provinces of Luxemburg, Hainault, Cambresis, Artois, and her district of Flanders, extending her dominion over the whole of the Netherlands, and on the east, not only to the banks of the Rhine, but within the empire of Germany; and say, whether such an extensive usurpation is consistent with the general interests of Europe, or even with the interests of any individual power, maritime or not maritime.

The prosecution of this subject might perhaps excite in a real patriot some unfavorable apprehensions; but to preclude all such

ſuch, let us indulge ourſelves in the animating reflection, that on the coaſt of this ſame country of which I am writing, the Britiſh fleet, under the command of Admiral, now Lord, Duncan, obtained, on the eleventh of October, 1797, the moſt deciſive and glorious naval victory, of which there exiſts an account in the annals of any nation.

Having juſt now had occaſion to mention the fortuitous ſucceſſion of events in human affairs, I cannot forbear from reciting to you an anecdote of the ſame kind, which the name of Lord Duncan has ſuggeſted to my remembrance. To the medical ſkill of the uncle of this great Admiral, the Hon. Charles Fox is indebted for his life. When an infant, I believe, of about two years old, he was attacked with the meaſles, and no hopes were entertained of his recovery. A lady, who viſited in the family, told his mother, Lady Caroline Fox, that ſhe had known much benefit received from the advice of Dr. Duncan, and expreſſed a deſire that he ſhould be called. The propoſal was immediately acceded to, and Dr. Duncan was requeſted to attend a

consultation of the ordinary physicians at an hour which was fixed. Amongst them was the celebrated Dr. Mead, with two or three others. They all of them looked with a jealous eye on their new associate; and having before prescribed, without any good effect, every thing which they thought most likely to remove the complaint, they with a supercilious air desired Dr. Duncan, if he could think of any thing else, to mention it. He told them, that in his opinion, there was only one thing necessary, and he doubted not but as soon as it was used, they should find the child to be much better.— On being desired to prescribe it, he ordered blood-letting in a proper quantity; which being performed, the infant patient quickly recovered, and his life was protracted to become a celebrated man. This anecdote I had from Sir William Duncan himself.

Much as the power of France must be encreased, by the acquisition of the Austrian Netherlands, and the subjection of the Dutch; much likewise as the general independence of Europe has been affected by the desertion of our allies, let Great Britain and Ireland only remain true to themselves,

and

and with the bleſſing of God upon our arms, we ſhall be able to fruſtrate all the efforts of our implacable enemy againſt us. While the known valour of our country bids defiance to their menaces, and the vigilance of adminiſtration continues to guard us from the danger of improvident ſecurity, we may reaſonably hope ſtill to preſerve our national independence, and to compenſate the preponderancy of power on the Continent, by aſſerting the empire of the ocean.

To take my farewel of the Netherlands; were I to paſs the remainder of my life abroad, there is no ſpot I ſhould ſooner chuſe for my reſidence than ſome part of the ſouthern Provinces; and almoſt none which I ſhould more diſlike than any part of the northern.

LETTER

LETTER XV.

IN performing our next excurſion, we have to paſs the Rhine, that noble river which riſes in the country of the Griſons, in Switzerland, and running northward, and towards the weſt, diſcharges itſelf by different channels into the German ſea. No bridge, however, conſtructed like that of Cæſar, is neceſſary to tranſport us into the German empire.

This extenſive tract of country is now divided into nine circles; three of which are in the north, three in the middle, and three in the ſouth. In the whole, it comprehends about three hundred princes, each of whom is arbitrary with regard to the government of his own eſtates; but they all form a great confederacy, governed by political laws, at the head of which is the Emperor.

Emperor. It is doubtless the most extraordinary assemblage of independent potentates ever exhibited to the world; and it was only by such a confederacy that so great a number of princes, differing extremely from each other in the extent of their territories, could ever be so long preserved from becoming the prey of those who were the most powerful amongst them. The supreme power in Germany is the Diet, which is composed of the Emperor, or, in his absence, of his commissary, and of the three colleges of the empire. The first of these is the Electoral College; the second the College of Princes; and the third, that of Imperial Towns. In this collective body, the power of the Emperor is only executive; but even this gives him extraordinary influence.

Under the race of Charlemagne the empire was hereditary, but afterwards became elective; at which time all the princes, nobility, and deputies of cities enjoyed the privilege of voting; but in the twelfth century, under the reign of Henry V. who was a weak and wicked prince, the chief officers of the empire altered the mode of

election

election in their own favor. A few years after, the number of electors was reduced to ſeven; ſince which period, two others have been added to that body.

The power of the Emperor is regulated by the capitulation which he ſigns at his election; and the perſon who in his life-time is choſen King of the Romans, ſucceeds to the vacancy of the empire without a new election. The Emperor can confer titles, and enfranchiſements upon cities and towns; but he can levy no taxes, nor make war or peace, without the conſent of the Diet. When that conſent is obtained, every prince muſt contribute his quota of men and money, as valued in the matriculation roll, though, perhaps, as an individual, he may eſpouſe a different ſide from that of the diet. Of this there happened a curious inſtance within our own memory. George II. of Great-Britain, as Elector of Hanover, was obliged to furniſh his quota againſt the houſe of Auſtria, and alſo againſt the King of Pruſſia, while he was fighting for them both.

The Emperor, as the head of ſo great a confederacy, claims a precedency for his

ambaſſadors in all foreign courts. His annual income, however, as Emperor, does not exceed ſix thouſand pounds ſterling, and ariſes from ſome inconſiderable fiefs in the Black Foreſt. The dignity of the empire has for ſome centuries been conferred on the houſe of Auſtria, as being the moſt powerful of the German princes; but of late years the aggrandizement of the King of Pruſſia ſeems to prognoſticate a rivalſhip between thoſe princes in a future period; and, what may prove yet more fatal to the Empire, an infringement of its ancient conſtitution. The ſymptoms of the latter of theſe events are already ſo threatening, that they cannot fail to excite apprehenſions for the future tranquillity of the empire.

Some of the German princes have much larger revenues than others; but it is impoſſible to ſpeak with any preciſion on the ſubject. The Auſtrian revenues, however, before the preſent war, were thought to amount to ſeven millions ſterling in Germany and Italy; and it is probable, that by the revolutionary partition, lately concluded, they will be conſiderably increaſed. This is ſuch a ſum as goes far in Germany.

To

To behold the magnificence of many of the German courts, a ſtranger is apt to conceive very high ideas of the incomes of their princes. ; which is owing to the high value of money in that country, and conſequently of the low price of proviſions and manufactures. It is unfortunate for the empire, that the petty princes affect the ſplendor of the more powerful in all their domeſtic arrangements ; to ſupport which pomp and parade, many of them oppreſs their ſubjects to an extreme degree. In ſome parts the burghers of Germany enjoy great privileges. In Franconia, Swabia, and on the Rhine, the peaſants likewiſe are generally a free people, or perform only certain ſervices to their ſuperiors, and pay the taxes; but in the marquiſate of Brandenburgh, Pomerania, Luſatia, Moravia, Bohemia, Auſtria, &c. they may juſtly be denominated ſlaves, though in different degrees.

The climate of Germany, as in all large tracts of country, differs greatly, not only on account of ſituation, but according to the improvements of the ſoil, which has a great effect on the temperature of the air.

The

The moſt mild and ſettled weather is found in the middle of the country, at an equal diſtance from the ſea and the Alps. Upon the whole, there is no great difference between the ſeaſons of Germany and thoſe of Great-Britain. But there are more woods and chaſes yet ſtanding in Germany than in moſt other countries; owing to the paſſion which the inhabitants have for hunting the wild boar. The Hercinian foreſt, which in Cæſar's time was nine days journey in length, and ſix in breadth, is now cut down in many places, or parcelled out into woods, which have all their different names. Moſt of the woods conſiſt of pine, fir, oak, and beach. There is a vaſt number of foreſts of leſs note in almoſt every part of the country; there being ſcarcely a nobleman or gentleman, who has not a chaſe or park adorned with pleaſure houſes, and well ſtocked with game, ſuch as roe-bucks, ſtags, hares, foxes, and boars.

The German wild boar differs in colour from our common hogs, and is four times as large; but its fleſh, and the hams made of it, are by many preferred to every other of the kind, both for flavour and grain,

grain. The *glutton* of Germany is accounted the moſt voracious of all animals. It feeds on almoſt every thing that has life, which it can procure; but its chief prey is birds, hares, rabbits, goats, and fawns. On theſe he feeds to ſuch an exceſs, that he falls into a kind of torpid ſtate, and not being able to move, he is killed by the huntſmen. His colour is a beautiful brown, with a faint tinge of red.

The Germans are naturally a frank, honeſt, hoſpitable people; but the higher orders are ridiculouſly proud of titles, anceſtry, and ſhew. Induſtry, application, and perſeverance are the great characteriſtics of this people, eſpecially the mechanical part of them. They have been charged with intemperance in eating and drinking, and perhaps not unjuſtly, owing to the vaſt quantity of wine, and proviſions of every kind, which the country produces. But thoſe practices ſeem now to be wearing out. At the greateſt tables, though the gueſts drink pretty freely at dinner, yet after three or four public toaſts have been given, the repaſt is commonly finiſhed by coffee. No people, however, have more

feaſting

feaſting at marriages, funerals, and on birth days. In no country is there to be found a greater taſte for reading than in Germany. Printing is encouraged even to exceſs.—Books are therefore multiplied without number; and almoſt every man of letters is an author. There are in Germany thirty-ſix univerſities, of which ſeventeen are proteſtant, ſeventeen Roman catholic, and two which partake of each religion. Many of the Germans have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in various branches of learning; but it was not till about the year 1730, that they began to write with elegance in their own language. It is however, an unfavourable circumſtance for the literature of this country, that the French language ſhould be ſo faſhionable in the German courts. Even Frederic the Great, King of Pruſſia, ordered the philoſophical tranſactions of his royal ſociety at Berlin, from the beginning of its inſtitution, to be publiſhed in the French tongue.

With reſpect to the fine arts the Germans are by no means deficient. This country has produced ſome good painters, architects, ſculptors and engravers. They even pretend

pretend to have been the firſt inventors of engraving, etching, and mezzotinto. Printing, if firſt invented in Holland, was ſoon after greatly improved in Germany. The Germans are generally allowed to have been the inventors of great guns, as alſo of gunpowder in Europe, about the year 1320. Germany has likewiſe produced ſome excellent muſicians, at the head of which ſtands the immortal Handel.

The cities in Germany being ſo numerous, I muſt content myſelf with giving a very ſhort account of the principal amongſt them.

Berlin is now accounted the capital of his Pruſſian majeſty's dominions, and affords the moſt extraordinary example of ſudden improvement, of any place that I know. It is ſituated on the river Spree; and beſides a royal palace, has many other ſuperb edifices. The king's palace, and that of Prince Henry, are magnificent buildings. The opera-houſe is alſo a beautiful ſtructure; and the arſenal, which is handſomely built in the form of a ſquare, is ſaid to contain arms for two hundred

thousand men. The streets and squares are spacious, and built in a very regular manner.

Dresden, in the electorate of Saxony, is beautifully situated on both sides of the Elbe; and in the magnificence of its palaces and public buildings, is unequalled. It is likewise the school of Germany for statuary, painting, enamelling, and carving; not to mention its mirrors, and founderies for bells and cannon, and its foreign commerce carried on by means of the Elbe. The Electorate of Saxony is, indeed, by nature, the richest country in Germany, if not in Europe.

The city of Leipsic, in upper Saxony, forty-six miles distant from Dresden, stands in a pleasant and fertile plain on the Plasse. It has long been distinguished for the liberty of conscience allowed to persons of different sentiments in religion; but that established in the place is the Lutheran. Here is a University, which is still very considerable. The exchange is an elegant building; and in this city there is an annual fair, during several days, to which great numbers resort from all quarters of the Germanic empire.

Hanover, the capital of that electorate, ſtands on the river Leins, and is a neat, thriving, and agreeable city, containing about twelve hundred houſes, among which is the electoral palace. At the diſtance of a few miles lie the palace and elegant gardens of Herenhauſen. The whole population of the electorate of Hanover is computed to amount to about ſeven hundred and fifty thouſand perſons; beſides which, there are about fifty thouſand inhabitants belonging to Bremen and Verden, two diſtricts purchaſed by the Elector, at an early period of the preſent century. The towns in theſe dominions are not without trade and manufactures; but the whole of the Electorate has ſuffered much by the acceſſion of the houſe of Hanover to the crown of Great Britain; notwithſtanding a reſpectable civil and military eſtabliſhment is conſtantly maintained, out of the revenues of the country. The ſecularized biſhopric of Oſnaburgh, now held by the Duke of York, lies ſeventy-five miles weſt of Hanover, between the rivers Weſer and Ems. The chief city of this territory has been long famous all over Europe, for the manufac-

tures known by the name of Oſnaburgh, and likewiſe for that of the beſt Weſtphalia hams. The whole revenue of the biſhopric is eſtimated at thirty thouſand pounds per annum.

Breſlau, the capital of Sileſia, lies on the river Oder, and is a free city, where all ſects of Chriſtians and Jews are tolerated, but the magiſtracy is Lutheran. The manufactures of Sileſia have been greatly improved, ſince the country fell under the dominion of the houſe of Brandenburg. It has been ſaid to yield his Pruſſian majeſty a revenue of near a million ſterling; but this eſtimate is probably exaggerated, as the houſe of Auſtria never drew from it above the half of that ſum; and I cannot think that the revenue is doubled ſince that period.

There are in Germany, you know, two cities of the name of Frankfort: one of them lies on the Oder, and is ſubject to the king of Pruſſia; but the other ſtands on both ſides the river Maine, and is an imperial city; I mean by that appellation a ſovereign ſtate, poſſeſſing a conſiderable territory around it, and governed by its

own magiſtrates. In the Stadthouſe, or Guildhall of this city, the electors aſſemble for the choice of an emperor, and here is preſerved the written inſtrument called the Golden Bull, which contains the fundamental laws of the empire. It is a fortified city, of a circular form, without any ſuburbs. It is adorned with ſeveral magnificent buildings, and three principal ſquares; but, in general, the ſtreets are narrow, and the houſes moſtly built of timber and plaſter, and covered with ſlate.

Vienna is the capital of the Circle of Auſtria, and being the reſidence of the Emperor, is regarded as the capital of Germany. It would be endleſs to enumerate the many palaces in this magnificent city, two of which are Imperial. Here is alſo an excellent univerſity, and a number of rich convents. Among thoſe is one for the Scottiſh nation, built in honor of their countryman, St. Colman, the patron of Auſtria; and one of the ſix gates of this city is called the Scots' Gate, in remembrance of ſome ſignal exploit performed there by the troops of that nation. The inhabitants of Vienna, including the ſuburbs,

burbs, which are larger than the city, are computed at about three hundred thousand. In the number of superb structures Vienna is doubtless remarkable; yet after all, I must abate from this general eulogium of its grandeur. The streets, excepting those in the suburbs, are narrow and dirty; the houses and furniture of the citizens are greatly disproportioned to the magnificence of the palaces, squares, and other public buildings; but above all, the excessive imposts laid by the house of Austria upon every commodity in its dominions, must always keep the manufacturing part of their subjects in a state of poverty, as is but too visible in the capital itself. Of late years, however, the condition of the Austrian subjects has been greatly meliorated, and the best effects will soon be found to arise from this prudent change of system.

With respect to antiquities and curiosities, there is not a court in Germany but produces a cabinet of curiosities, artificial and natural, ancient and modern. Every city of any note has likewise in it a valuable public library. The vast Gothic palaces, cathedrals, castles, and above all, town-

houses

houſes in Germany, are ſtriking objects to every traveller. They exhibit the ſame appearance of rude magnificence as they did four hundred years ago; and many of them have an effect ſuperior even to that of Greek architecture. Among the artificial curioſities, I muſt not omit mentioning the celebrated ton at Heidelburg, which contains eight hundred hogſheads, and is generally full of the beſt Rheniſh wine, with which they never fail to regale ſtrangers who are not averſe to the invitation.

Among the chief natural curioſities in Germany are caves and rocks. Near Blackenburg, in Hartz Foreſt, there is a cave, of which it is ſaid that none has ever yet found the end, though many, we are told, have advanced into it for twenty miles. But the moſt remarkable curioſity of that kind is near Hammelin, about fifty miles from Hanover, where, at the mouth of the cave, ſtands a monument, which commemorates the loſs of a hundred and thirty children, who were there ſwallowed up in 1284. This fact, though ſtrongly atteſted, has been diſputed by ſome writers.

I cannot

I cannot take my leave of Germany without expreſſing a fervent wiſh, that a conſtitution which has ſo long reſiſted the encroachments of foreign powers, and endeavoured to maintain its internal tranquillity, may continue to preſerve among its members that mutual union which can alone ſecure their proſperity and independence. Great Britain and the Proteſtant part of Germany are linked together by peculiar connexions. We have received from that country an illuſtrious family, which has ſwayed the ſceptre with great advantage to the nation. We have interchanged with each other princeſſes, whoſe virtues are an ornament to royalty; and I doubt not but the connexion will be yet more ſtrongly cemented, by a matrimonial alliance of more of our amiable princeſſes with ſuitable princes of that empire.

LETTER

LETTER XVI.

My present letter ſhall be devoted to the kingdoms adjoining Germany, which are thoſe of Pruſſia, Bohemia, Hungary, and Poland.

Pruſſia, conſidered as a kingdom, is diſtinct from Germany, which however it reſembles in all its natural productions, as well as in the manners of the inhabitants. The Pruſſian monarch, by means of the advantageous ſituation of his dominions, and the wiſe political regulations which have been introduced, derives a vaſt revenue from this country, which, about a century and a half ago, was the ſeat of boors and barbariſm. It is ſaid that amber alone brings him in twenty-ſix thouſand dollars annually. His other revenues ariſe from his demeſnes, his duties of cuſtoms and tolls,

tolls, with the ſubſidies yearly granted by the ſeveral ſtates; all which muſt amount to a very conſiderable ſum, excluſive of thoſe which ariſe from the partition of Poland.

Hitherto the kings of Pruſſia have all paid particular attention to the improvement of their military force. The army, even in time of peace, conſiſts uſually of a hundred and eighty thouſand of the beſt diſciplined troops in the world; which is the means by which that kingdom has lately attained to ſo great conſideration on the Continent. But this large military force, though it aggrandizes the importance of the ſovereign, is extremely injurious to the intereſts of the people. Whatever number of ſons a peaſant may have, they are all liable to be taken into the ſervice, except one, who is left to aſſiſt in the management of the farm. The reſt wear badges from their childhood, to mark that they are deſtined to be ſoldiers, and obliged to enter into the ſervice whenever they are called upon. This has occaſioned ſuch a drain from population, and ſo much diminiſhed the exertions of agriculture, that

Frederick

Frederick II. endeavoured in ſome degree to ſave his own peaſantry, by drawing as many recruits as he could from other countries. Thoſe foreign recruits remain conſtantly with the regiments in which they are placed ; but the native Pruſſians have every year ſome months of furlough, during which they return to the houſes of their fathers or brothers, and work at the buſineſs of the farm, or in any other way they pleaſe.

The air of Bohemia, which is alſo diſtinct from Germany, is not thought ſo wholeſome as that of the latter ; though in general its ſoil and produce are pretty much the ſame. This kingdom contains rich mines of ſilver, quick-ſilver, copper, iron, lead, ſulphur, and ſeltpetre. Prague, the capital of Bohemia, is one of the moſt magnificent cities in Europe, as well as very extenſive, and famous for its noble bridge over the Muldaw. It is however a place of little or no trade.

Of the old Bohemian conſtitution there now remains nothing but the form, the government under the houſe of Auſtria being now deſpotic. Their ſtates are compoſed,

posed of the clergy, nobility, gentry, and representatives of towns. In general the people have an aversion towards the Austrians; on which account, of late, the Austrian princes have been cautious of provoking them by ill usage. The revenues of this country are whatever the sovereign is pleased to exact from the states of the kingdom, when they are annually assembled at Prague; and their amount may be about half a million sterling.

The kingdom of Hungary may be divided into the upper and lower Hungary, to which may be added Temeswaer, which has been considered as distinct from Hungary, because it was formerly governed by an independent king. The air in the southern parts of Hungary is unhealthy, on account of its numerous lakes, stagnated waters, and marshes; but the northern parts being mountainous and barren, the air is salubrious. No country in the world can boast a richer soil than that plain which extends three hundred miles from Presburg to Belgrade, and yields variety of productions. Corn is there in such plenty, that it sells for one sixth part of its price in Eng-

land.

land. The Hungarian baths and mineral waters are eſteemed the moſt ſovereign of any in Europe; but their magnificent buildings, raiſed by the Turks when in poſſeſſion of the country, are ſuffered to go to decay. The Hungarian wines, particularly Tokay, are preferable to thoſe of any other country in Europe.

It was late before the Northern barbarians drove the Romans out of Hungary; and ſome of the deſcendants of their legionary forces may ſtill be diſtinguiſhed in the inland parts, by their ſpeaking of Latin.

In the country of Temeſwaer there are many faraons or gypſies, ſuppoſed to be the real deſcendants of the ancient Egyptians, whom they reſemble in their features, in their propenſity to melancholy, and in many of their manners and cuſtoms. I had no opportunity of aſcertaining the fact by ocular demonſtration, but have been aſſured, that the laſcivious dances of Iris, the worſhip of onions, many famous Egyptian ſuperſtitions, and the Egyptian method of hatching eggs by means of dung, are ſtill in uſe amongſt the female gypſies in Temeſwaer.

One of the moſt remarkable natural curioſities in Hungary, is a cavern in a mountain near Szelitze. The aperture, which fronts the ſouth, is eighteen fathoms high, and eight broad. Its ſubterranean paſſages conſiſt entirely of ſolid rock, ſtretching farther than has yet been diſcovered. As far as it is practicable to go, the height is found to be about fifty fathoms, and the breadth twenty-ſix.

The artificial curioſities of this country conſiſt chiefly of its bridges. The Bridge of Eſſeck, built over the Danube, and Drave, is, properly ſpeaking, a continuation of bridges, five miles in length, fortified with towers at certain diſtances. A bridge of boats runs over the Danube, half a mile long, between Buda and Peſt; and about twenty Hungarian miles diſtant from Belgrade, are the remains of a bridge erected by the Romans, judged to be the moſt magnificent of any in the world.

The Hungarian government preſerves the remains of many checks upon the regal power. They have a Diet or Parliament, beſides the Geſpan Chafts, reſembling our

Juſtices

Justices of the peace; and every royal town has its senate.

Both Bohemia and Hungary have undergone great changes in their ancient constitution; but no kingdom has been more unfortunate than that which I am now on the point of entering; I mean Poland.

Blessed by nature with a healthful climate, and a soil remarkable for its fertility; yet the happiness of the people has been perpetually obstructed by a pernicious constitution of government; nominally regal, but in fact an aristocracy, and that of a kind the most oppressive. When I speak of the common-wealth of Poland, you will readily conceive that I allude to that form of government which existed before the partition of the country; for there now remains no traces of its former state, nor indeed of its existence as a distinct nation. The king was then nominally, as I before observed, the head of the republic; and he was elected by the nobility and clergy, on horseback, in the plains of Warsaw. One dissentient voice, pronouncing *Veto*, was sufficient to invalidate the election. When a minority proved refractory, the majority

rity had no other means of enforcing the election, than by cutting their opponents in pieces with their ſabres; but if the minority was ſufficiently ſtrong, a civil war enſued. Immediately after the election, the king ſigned the *pacta conventa* of the kingdom, by which he engaged to introduce no foreigners into the army or government. He was henceforth only preſident of the ſenate, which was compoſed of the primate, the archbiſhop of Limburg, fifteen biſhops and a hundred and thirty laymen, conſiſting of the great officers of ſtate, the Palatines and Caſtellans, who were the grandees of the kingdom.

The Diets of Poland were ordinary and extraordinary. The former met once in two, and ſometimes three years: the latter was ſummoned by the king upon critical emergencies; but here likewiſe one diſſentient voice rendered all their deliberations ineffectual. The king could nominate the great officers of ſtate, but they were accountable only to the ſenate; and he could not diſplace them when once appointed.

Such are the outlines of this motley conſtitution, which changed its form with almoſt

moſt every new king, according to the ſtipulations which he was obliged to ſign at his acceſſion. The tribunitial *Veto* was founded upon Gothic principles, repugnant to the dictates of civilized and rational juriſdiction; and what greatly increaſed its bad effects, it was ſo far from being exerciſed from any motive of patriotiſm, that it always originated in the influence of ſome of the neighbouring powers, who were intereſted to foment anarchy and confuſion in the councils of Poland. Nor was this a matter of any difficulty; for many of the firſt nobility did not ſcruple to receive penſions from foreign courts, whoſe views and intereſts, conſequently, it became their buſineſs to promote. This ancient commonwealth has at length been diſmembered by the three great Potentates of Ruſſia, Pruſſia, and Auſtria; and it ſeems at preſent to be determined that no veſtige of its former government ſhall be allowed to exiſt. But this tranſlation of the territory and juriſdiction of Poland, however arbitrary and violent, can very little affect the intereſts of the bulk of the nation; for they have hitherto lived in a ſtate of ſuch ſubjection and ſlavery

to their maſters, as never was ſurpaſſed even during the moſt barbarous periods of the feudal ages.

The chief rivers of Poland are the Viſtula, or Weyſel, the Nieſter, Nieper, or Boriſthenes, the Bog, and the Dwina. Some of the vegetable productions of Poland are peculiar to itſelf, particularly a kind of manna (if it can be called a vegetable), which in May and June the inhabitants ſweep into ſieves with the dew, and dreſſing it in various ways, make uſe of it for food. In Lithuania, which country was annexed to Poland, great quantities of yellow amber are frequently dug up, in pieces as large as a man's fiſt, ſuppoſed to be the production of a reſinous pine.

The foreſts of Warſovia contain great numbers of Uri, or buffaloes, the fleſh of which the Poles reduce to a powder, and eſteem it an excellent diſh. The fleſh of the Poliſh elk is likewiſe much admired by the natives, and forms a principal part in all their great entertainments. The body of this animal reſembles the deer, but exceeds it both in thickneſs and length: the legs are high, the feet broad and cloven, the

horns

horns large, rough and broad, like thoſe of a wild goat. Naturaliſts have obſerved, that upon diſſecting an elk, there were found in its head ſome large flies, with its brains almoſt eaten away; and it is a fact well atteſted, that in the large woods and foreſts of the north, this animal is attacked, chiefly towards the winter, by a large ſort of flies, which, through its ears, attempt to take up their winter quarters in its head. This perſecution is thought to affect the elk with the falling-ſickneſs, by which means it is taken; an event which would otherwiſe not be eaſily accompliſhed.

Among the natural curioſities of Poland, I ſhall mention an ambiguous ſpecies of animal, which has all the form of humanity, but is deſtitute of its properties. It is beyond a doubt, that ſuch beings have been found in the woods of that country. When taken, they generally, it is ſaid, went on all fours; but this circumſtance I ſhould much queſtion, conſidering that the formation of the human knee and feet is extremely unſuitable to ſuch motion. It is further ſaid, that ſome of them have, by proper management, attained to the uſe of

 ſpeech,

ſpeech. Of the hiſtory of theſe creatures we can only form a conjecture. It is probable that the frequent incurſions of the Tartars, and other barbarous nations into Poland, have forced the women ſometimes to leave their children expoſed in the woods; but how thoſe miſerable objects could afterwards ſubſiſt, we can account for only upon the ſuppoſition, that they were nurſed by bears, or other wild beaſts. I once had occaſion to ſee one of theſe humiliating ſpectacles in a village in Germany.

Under the mountains adjoining to Riow, in the deſerts of Podolia, are ſeveral grottos, where a great number of human bodies are preſerved. They are ſuppoſed to have lain buried through a long ſucceſſion of ages; but are neither ſo hard, nor ſo black as the Egyptian mummies. Among them are two princes in their uſual habits. It is thought that this preſerving quality is owing to the nature of the ſoil, which is dry and ſandy.

The ſalt mines of Poland conſiſt of wonderful caverns, ſeveral hundred yards deep, at the bottom of which are many intricate windings and labyrinths. Out of theſe are dug

dug four different kinds of ſalt; one extremely hard, like cryſtal; another ſofter, but clearer; a third white, but brittle; theſe are all brackiſh, but the fourth is ſomewhat freſher. Theſe four kinds are dug in different mines, near the city of Cracow: on one ſide of them is a ſtream of ſalt water, and on the other, one of freſh.

Few antiquities are to be met with in Poland; for old Sarmatia was never perfectly known to the Romans themſelves: and in artificial curioſities, it is almoſt equally unproductive.

The capital of Poland, you know, is Cracow, which ſtands on an extenſive plain watered by the Viſtula. Including the ſuburbs, it occupies a vaſt ſpace of ground, but altogether ſcarcely contain ſixteen thouſand inhabitants. It is ſurrounded with high brick walls, ſtrengthened with round and ſquare towers in the ancient ſtyle of fortification.

Warſaw, which diſputes with the preceding the honor of being the metropolis, lies on the Viſtula, and almoſt in the centre of Poland. It is, or rather was, the royal reſidence, and contains many magni-

ficent palaces and other buildings, besides churches and convents. It is computed to contain near seventy thousand inhabitants, but of these great numbers are foreigners. The streets are spacious, but ill paved, and the greater part of the houses, particularly in the suburbs, are mean wooden hovels. The city exhibits a strong contrast of wealth and poverty, as indeed does every part of the ancient Polish republic.

Dantzic is the capital of Polish Prussia, and is famous for having been formerly at the head of the Hanseatic associations, commonly called the Hanse-Towns. It is situated on the Vistula, near five miles from the Baltic, and is a large, beautiful, and populous city. The houses are generally five stories high; and many of its streets are planted with chesnut-trees. It has a fine harbour, and enjoys an extensive commerce. This city is a republic, and claims an adjacent territory about forty miles round it, which was formerly under the protection of the King and republic of Poland.

LETTER

LETTER XVII.

FROM ſurveying, in my laſt letter, the relics of ſeveral kingdoms, which have changed their ancient conſtitution, I now proceed ſouthward to Switzerland, a mountainous country, but which, on that account, has long been the ſacred aſylum of liberty on the Continent. It is divided into thirteen cantons, which, though all confederated together, enjoy not the ſame conſtitution. Some are ariſtocratical, others are democratical; and every canton is abſolute in its own juriſdiction. The confederacy, conſidered as a republic, comprehends three diviſions. The firſt are the Swiſſes, properly ſo called. The ſecond are the Griſons, or the ſtates confederated with the Swiſſes, for their common protection. The third are the Prefectures, which though

though ſubject to the other two, by purchaſe or otherwiſe, preſerve each its own particular magiſtrates. Every canton forms within itſelf a little republic; but when any controverſy ariſes that may affect the whole confederacy, it is referred to the general diet, which ſits at Baden, where each canton having a vote, every queſtion is decided by the majority.

The Cantons being ſo various in extent, population, and produce, it is difficult to form any preciſe eſtimate of their revenues. Thoſe of the Canton of Bern are ſaid to amount annually to three hundred thouſand crowns, and of Zurich to a hundred and fifty thouſand; the other Cantons in proportion to their produce and manufactures. Whatever is ſaved, after defraying the neceſſary expences of government, is laid up as a common ſtock; and it has been ſaid, though I cannot affirm it upon indubitable authority, that the Swiſſes are poſſeſſed of five hundred thouſand pounds ſterling in the Britiſh funds, beſides thoſe in other banks.

The internal ſtrength of the Swiſs Cantons, independent of the militia, conſiſts of

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thirteen thouſand four hundred men, levied according to the population and abilities of each. The œconomy and wiſdom with which this force is raiſed, and employed, are truly admirable; as are the arrangements made by the general diet, for maintaining that body of militia, which are ſupplied from foreign ſtates and princes, ſo as to benefit the republic, without any prejudice to its population. Every burgher, peaſant, and ſubject, is obliged to exerciſe himſelf in the uſe of arms, appear on ſtated days for ſhooting at a mark, furniſh himſelf with proper cloathing and accoutrements, powder and ball; and to be always ready, when called upon, for the defence of his country. The Swiſs engage in the ſervice of foreign princes and ſtates, either merely as guards, or as marching regiments. In the latter caſe, the government permits the enliſting of volunteers, though only for ſuch ſtates as they are in alliance with, or with whom they have entered into a previous agreement on that article. But no ſubject is to be forced into foreign ſervice, or even to be enliſted, without the concurrence of the magiſtracy.

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The moſt conſiderable city in this country is Bern, which ſtands on the river Aer. This city and canton is ſuppoſed to form almoſt a third of the Helvetic confederacy, and can, upon occaſion, fit out a hundred thouſand armed men. In this canton is Lauſanne, ſituated on the north ſide of the lake of Geneva, and celebrated for its univerſity. Baſil is by ſome accounted the capital of Switzerland. It is ſituated in a fertile and pleaſant country, on the banks of the Rhine, and the confines of Germany. It contains two hundred and twenty ſtreets, and two market-places. The town-houſe, which ſtands on the river Birſee, is ſupported by very large pillars, and its great hall is finely painted by the celebrated Hans Holbein, who was a native of this city. Baden is famous for its antiquity and baths. In the arſenal of Zurich, which is far leſs conſiderable than Bern, is ſhewn the bow of the famous William Tell, who proved the means of delivering Switzerland from the Auſtrian yoke. In the library of the ſame city, there is a manuſcript of letters, written in elegant Latin and German by the

the unfortunate Lady Jane Grey, to the judicious reformer, Bullinger.

The ruins of Cæſar's Wall, which extended eighteen miles in length, from Mont Jura to the banks of Lake Leman, are ſtill diſcernible; and many monuments of antiquity have been diſcovered near the Baths of Baden, which were known to the Romans in the time of Tacitus.

In paſſing over the mountainous parts of this country, a traveller is ſtruck with admiration, to obſerve rocks that were formerly barren, now planted with vines, or abounding with luxuriant paſture; and to mark the traces of a plough along the ſides of precipices ſo ſteep, that a horſe could not even mount them without much difficulty. The feet of the mountains, and ſometimes alſo the ſummits, are covered with vineyards, corn-fields, and paſture-grounds. Other parts are dreary, conſiſting almoſt entirely of barren and inacceſſible rocks, ſome of which are continually covered with ſnow and ice; and the vallies between them appear like ſo many ſmooth frozen lakes. In ſome parts there is a regular gradation from extreme wildneſs to high cultivation;

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in others, the tranſitions are abrupt and ſtriking. In ſhort, Switzerland abounds with the moſt pictureſque ſcenes that can be imagined; and every diſtrict in this country preſents the traveller with ſome natural curioſity, in the ſhape of wild but beautiful proſpects.

Geneva, though under the protection of the Helvetic body, is an independent republic. This city is ſituated upon the afflux of the Rhine from the fine lake of Geneva. It is well built and fortified, and contains twenty-four thouſand inhabitants, moſt of whom are Calviniſts. It is celebrated for the learning of the profeſſors of its univerſity, and the good government of its colleges, the purity of its air, and the politeneſs of its inhabitants. At Ferney, a villa in the neighbourhood of this city, I had firſt the pleaſure of ſeeing the celebrated Monſieur Voltaire, with whom, upon invitation, I paſſed almoſt a whole week. On this occaſion I muſt relate to you the following anecdote.

One day after dinner as we were ſpeaking of the beauties of the lake of Geneva, Voltaire, with that facetious vivacity which diſ-

tinguiſhed

tinguiſhed him, deſired that I would produce four lines of Engliſh poetry in praiſe of that ſubject. He ſaid he ſhould not confine me to the attitude of Lucilius, *ſtans pede in uno*, but that I ſhould have only two minutes for performing the taſk ; and he appointed his amiable and ſprightly niece to be arbitreſs of the tranſaction. She was to give the ſignal when the period commenced, as well as to announce its expiration. For this purpoſe, taking from her ſide an elegant gold watch, ſhe laid it down upon the table. Her politeneſs induced her to protract the *entre-tems*, for, I believe, about a minute. She then gave the ſignal ; when he pleaſantly called out to her, *comptez a un moment*. Before the two minutes were expired, I produced the two following couplets, of which your candour will judge with the indulgence due to an *extempore*.

Freedom's retreat ! O ſacred lake renown'd,
Whom Nature's ſelf with Alpine fame has crown'd,
Geneva, hail ! too great for feeble lays,
Voltaire alone can celebrate thy praiſe.

He read it with apparent ſatisfaction, and taking me by the hand, ſaid, *en verité*

rité, Monſieur, a merveilles! Then adding, that it was too good not be tranſlated into French, for the pleaſure of the company, he ſet about writing with a pencil the following verſion; in which I need not tell you, he ingeniouſly ſuppreſſed the compliment I had paid him.

"O Lac ſacré, Geneve! de la liberté la borne,
"Que la nature meme des plus grands honneurs
"orne,
"Ce n'eſt pas a moi a chanter ta louange;
"Il faudroit pour cela la trompette d'un archange."

The whole, I think, and particularly the laſt line, is highly characteriſtic of his manner.

Nothing can be more delightful to a traveller than the ſummer months in Switzerland; and the beauties of the country are heightened by the agreeable character of the inhabitants, who are diſtinguiſhed by a native ſimplicity of manners, and an open unaffected frankneſs. Even the common people are far more intelligent than the ſame rank of men in moſt other countries; and, beſides an air of general content and ſatisfaction, they diſcover in their houſes,

their

their perſons, and their dreſs, a cleanlineſs not to be found in the neighbouring nations, which are under a deſpotic government. On the whole, I cannot but approve the taſte of thoſe who reſort to this favoured country for the enjoyment of pure air, delightful ſcenes, cheapneſs of living, and the rational pleaſures of ſociety. On all theſe accounts, my friend Mr. Gibbon had a great attachment to Switzerland.

P. S. Before cloſing this letter, I have the mortification to learn, that the Swiſs have ſubmitted to the imperious dictates of the French. Their behaviour on this occaſion is far from correſponding to their former valour and magnanimity; but their union and firmneſs were previouſly weakened by the emiſſaries and principles of that infatuated people; and now the riches of the country, whatever they are, will become the ſpoil of the invaders.

LETTER

LETTER XVIII.

INSTEAD of croſſing the Alps at preſent, I ſhall direct my courſe towards the Pyrenees, and paſs from a land where liberty reigned triumphant, to the gloomy regions of a deſpotiſm, equal, if not greater in ſeverity, to any that ever exiſted. You will anticipate, from my circumlocution, that I mean the kingdom of Spain. With how ſtriking a contraſt does this tranſition preſent me! In Switzerland, the inhabitants have ſurmounted, by induſtry, every obſtruction which ſoil, ſituation, and climate, had thrown in their way; while in Spain, a fatal indolence has rendered ineffectual all the local advantages of the country. The former have reſcued from barrenneſs the very rocks, and the ſummits of mountains; the latter abandons

to ſterility large tracts of plains, which are capable of high cultivation. Such, however, is the natural fertility of Spain, in many places, that it produces, almoſt ſpontaneouſly, the richeſt and most delicious fruits that are to be found in France and Italy; ſuch as oranges, lemons, prunes, citrons, almonds, raiſins, and figs: at the ſame time that their wines, particularly ſack and ſherry, are in high requeſt among other nations. Even ſugar-canes thrive in this country; and it yields ſaffron, honey, and ſilk, in great abundance. No country produces a greater variety of aromatic herbs, which renders the taſte of their kids and ſheep exquiſitely delicious. Some of the mountains of Spain are cloathed with rich trees, fruits, and herbage, to the tops; and Seville oranges noted all over the world. In ſhort, few countries, as I have already intimated, are more indebted to nature than Spain, and leſs to induſtry.

This country however, is much infeſted with locuſts. They have ſometimes appeared in the air in ſuch numbers as to darken the ſky. Their ſenſe of ſmelling, it is ſaid, is ſo delicate, that they can diſco-

ver a corn-field, or a garden, at a consider-able diſtance; and which they will ravage almoſt in an inſtant. Some travellers are of opinion, that the Spaniards, by timely at-tention, might deſtroy the eggs of thoſe pernicious inſects, and thereby totally ex-tirpate them.

The chief mountains in Spain are the Py-renees, which extend two hundred miles in length, from the Bay of Biſcay to the Mediterranean. Over theſe mountains there are only five narrow paſſages to France; one of which, in particular, namely that which ſeparates Rouſillon from Catalonia, has been greatly improved. Here it formerly required the ſtrength of thirty men to ſupport, and nearly as many oxen to drag up a carriage, which four horſes now do with eaſe. The Cantabrian mountains are a kind of continuation of the Pyrenees, and reach to the Atlantic Ocean, ſouth of Cape Finiſterre. No Briton is unacquainted with Mount Calpe, now called the Hill of Gibraltar, and in an-cient times, one of the pillars of Hercules.

But among the mountains of Spain, Montſerrat is one of the moſt remarkable

in the world for ſituation, compoſition, and ſhape. It ſtands in a vaſt plain, about thirty miles from Barcelona, and nearly in the centre of the principality of Catalonia. It is called by the inhabitants of the diſtrict Monte Serrado, which ſignifies a cut or ſawed mountain, and it is ſo called from its extraordinary and ſingular form. For it is ſo broken and ſubdivided, and ſo crowned with an infinite number of cones, that viewed at a diſtance, it has the appearance of being artificial; but upon a nearer approach, of being evidently the production of nature. Each of the conical ſummits appears then of itſelf a mountain; and the whole compoſe an enormous maſs, about fourteen miles in circumference, and computed to be in height three thouſand three hundred feet. It is a ſpot ſo admirably adapted for retirement and contemplation, that it has, for many ages, been inhabited by monks and hermits, whoſe firſt vow is never to forſake it. There is erected on the mountain a convent, dedicated to our Lady of Montſerrat, to which pilgrims conſtantly reſort from the fartheſt parts of

 Europe,

Europe. All the poor who come thither are fed gratis for three days, and all the sick received into the hospital. Sometimes, on particular festivals, seven thousand persons arrive in one day; but people of condition pay a reasonable price for what they eat. On different parts of the mountain are a number of hermitages, all of which have their little chapels, ornaments for saying mass, water-cisterns, and most of them little gardens. The inhabitants of one of these hermitages, which is dedicated to St. Benato, has the privilege of making an annual entertainment on a certain day, to which all the other hermits are invited; when they receive the sacrament from the hands of the mountain vicar, and after divine service dine together. They meet also at this hermitage, on the days of the saints to whom their several hermitages are dedicated, to say mass, and converse with each other. At all other times they live in a very recluse manner, perform various penances, and adhere to very rigid rules of abstinence, nor do they ever eat flesh. They are not permitted to keep within their walls either dog, cat, bird, or

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any living creature, left their attention should be drawn from heavenly to earthly affections.

I made enquiry with respect to the longevity of those monastic inhabitants of Montserrat; and I was told that most of them live to a great age. This, doubtless, is owing not only to their habitual temperance, but to the purity of the air, which in this situation cannot but be highly salubrious.

The rivers of Spain are the Duero, the Tayo, or Tagus, the Guadiana, Guadalquiver, the Ebro, and the Tinto. The last of these is so named from giving a tinge to its waters, which are as yellow as a topaz, hardening the sand, and petrifying it in a surprizing manner. If a stone happens to fall in, and rests upon another, they become in a year's time perfectly united. This river withers all the plants on its banks, as well as the roots of trees, which it dies of the same colour as its waters. No fish live in its stream. It kills worms in cattle when given them to drink; but in general, no animals will drink out of this river, excepting goats, the flesh of which, nevertheless,

neverthelefs, has an excellent flavour. Thefe fingular properties continue till other rivulets run into it, and alter its nature.

Spain abounds both in metals and minerals. The Spanifh iron, next to that of Damafcus, furnifhes the beft arms in the world, and in former times brought in a vaft revenue to the crown. Even to this day, Spanifh gun-barrels, and fwords of Toledo, are highly valued. In ancient times, Spain was celebrated for gold and filver mines. The latter was in fuch plenty, that Strabo informs us, that when the Carthaginians took poffeffion of Spain, their domeftic and agricultural utenfils were of this metal. Thofe mines have now difappeared; but whether by their being exhaufted, or through the indolence of the inhabitants in not working them is uncertain.

The Spanifh horfes, efpecially thofe of Andalufia, are thought to be the handfomeft of any in Europe, and at the fame time very fwift. The country likewife furnifhes mules and black cattle; and is famous for the ferocity of its wild bulls. Wolves are the chief beafts of prey that pefter

pester Spain, which is well stored with all the game and wild fowl usual in other countries. Sheep are in such plenty in Spain, especially in the northern parts, that according to some late information, the number of shepherds amount to forty thousand.

History assures us, that in the time of Julius Cæsar, there were in Spain no less than fifty millions of souls. Before the discovery of America, in 1492, the number was computed at twenty millions. This discovery however drained the kingdom of almost half its inhabitants; to which national loss was added the expulsion of a million of Moors, about the same period, with another million in 1610 and 1612. At present, it is computed, that the number of persons who are of age to receive the sacraments, is about six millions and a half. But in this computation there are included sixty-seven thousand monks, and half that number of nuns, who are a useless burden upon the state. Including children, it is probable, that the whole inhabitants of the kingdom do not amount by several millions, to the number at which they were

rated in the beginning of the laſt century; an evident proof of the declining ſtate of this once powerful monarchy.

The Spaniards are remarkable for entertaining ideas of ſelf-importance beyond that of any other nation; but this pride, however ridiculous, is not without its good effects. It inſpires them ſo much with ſentiments of honour, that a Spaniſh nobleman, gentleman, or even trader, is ſeldom guilty of a mean action. But the common people who live on the coaſts, partake of all the bad qualities that are to be found in other nations; of which, indeed, they are, for the moſt part, a motley aſſemblage.

After all that has been ſaid of the Spaniſh ladies, their beauty reigns chiefly in their novels and romances, which are filled with extravagance on this ſubject. The country doubtleſs produces ſome as fine women as any in the world; but beauty by no means forms their general character. In their perſons they are commonly tall and ſlender; but they are ſaid to employ much art in ſupplying the defects of nature. Their indiſcriminate uſe of paint, not only upon their faces, but their necks, arms, and hands,

hands, undoubtedly injures their complexion, and ſhrivels the ſkin. It is, however, generally admitted that they have a great deal of wit and vivacity. The Spaniards, among their many good qualities, are remarkable for ſobriety in eating and drinking. They frequently breakfaſt, as well as ſup, in bed. Their breakfaſt is uſually chocolate, tea or coffee being ſeldom drank. Both ſexes uſually ſleep after dinner, and take the air in the cool of the evenings. Dancing is ſo much their favorite entertainment, that it is no uncommon thing to ſee a grandmother, mother, and daughter, all in the ſame country dance.

I did not ſee the Fandango, which is ſaid to reſemble a dance at Otaheite, as deſcribed by the voyagers; but it prevails only among the lower kind of people.

The uſual time for their viſits, as in other hot countries, is the evening. At this time the men meet abroad in public places of reſort, and the ladies viſit each other at their houſes, where the floors of the apartments are covered with rich carpets, and cuſhions of ſilk or velvet; they yet retain-

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ing the cuſtom of the Moors of ſitting on the floor. They never addreſs one another by any diginguiſhing title, as, your highneſs, your grace, &c. but the title of *donna* is given to ladies of every rank. Thoſe of diſtinction, however, pay their viſits in great ſtate. They are carried in a chair by four men, of whom the two foremoſt are uncovered. Two others attend as a guard, and a ſeventh carries a lantern. A coach drawn by mules immediately follows, containing her women, and another the upper male domeſtics, ſeveral menial ſervants walking after. The whole proceſſion is very ſlow, conformable to the gravity of the people. Few coaches, except the king's, are drawn by horſes, though hardly any country affords a finer breed for the purpoſe.

Every town in Spain has a large ſquare for the purpoſe of exhibiting bull-fights.

As I believe you have never ſeen any of thoſe ſpectacles, I preſent you with an account of one which occurred to my obſervation in paſſing through Spain.

On the ſpot where any of thoſe are exhibited, ſcaffolds are previouſly erected for the

the ſpectators, and the beaſts are ſhut up in ſtalls, made as dark as poſſible, to render them the fiercer on the day of battle. Every thing being ready, the bulls remained to be driven acroſs the area from the ſtables in which they were confined, to a ſmaller, behind the amphitheatre, where they were to be kept apart from each other. The firſt ſtable was almoſt cloſe to the amphitheatre, and a wall of boards ſix feet high was put up on each ſide of the way by which the bulls were to paſs. At a quarter paſt four in the afternoon, ten bulls were let into the area, in order to be put into the ſtables at the oppoſite door; a man on foot leading before them a tame ox, which had been bred with the bulls, to decoy them into thoſe receptacles. Three combatants on horſe-back placed themſelves at ſome diſtance, one on each ſide of, and the other oppoſite to the door at which the bull was to enter. A trumpet was then ſounded, as a ſignal to let in a bull, and the man who opened the door got behind it immediately.

During a quarter of an hour preceding this period, the bulls had been teazed by pricking them in the back. This is done by

by perſons placed on the cieling of the ſtables, which was low, and conſtructed in ſuch a manner as to afford convenience for the operation. The bulls were diſtinguiſhed by a ſmall knot of ribband fixed to their ſhoulders.

The bull made directly at the firſt horſeman, who received it on the point of his ſpear, held in the middle tight to his ſide, and paſſing under his arm-pit. This weapon making a wide gaſh in the bull's ſhoulder, occaſioned it to draw back, the blood in the mean time ruſhing out in a torrent. The force with which the bull attacked the man was ſo great, that the ſhock had nearly overſet both him and his horſe.

A freſh bull now entered the amphitheatre, where it ſtared about, frighted by the clapping and hallooing of the multitude. It then ran ſucceſſively againſt the two other combatants on horſeback, and from each received a deep wound. A ſignal was now given with the trumpet for the horſemen to retire; and the men on foot began their attack, who ſtruck barbed darts into every part of the animal's body. The trumpet again ſounding, the matador appeared,

peared, carrying in his left hand a cloak extended on a ſhort ſtick, and in his right a two-edged ſword, the blade of which was flat, four inches broad, and a yard long. At the moment when the bull ran furiouſly at him, he plunged his ſword into its neck, behind the horns, by which it inſtantly fell down dead. If the matador miſſes his aim, and cannot defend himſelf with the cloak, he is almoſt ſure to loſe his life, as the exaſperated animal exerts its remaining ſtrength with almoſt incredible fury. The dead bull was immediately dragged out of the area by three horſes on a full gallop, whoſe traces were faſtened to its horns.

Another bull was then let in, more furious than the former. The horſeman miſſed his aim, and the bull thruſt his horns into the horſe's belly. The latter becoming ungovernable, the rider was obliged to diſmount and abandon it to the bull, which purſued it round the area, till at laſt the horſe fell, and expired. Four other horſes were ſucceſſively killed by this bull, which only received ſlight wounds, till the laſt of the horſes kicked its jaw to pieces. One of the horſemen broke his ſpear in the bull's neck,

neck, and the horſe and rider fell to the ground, when the latter breaking his leg, was carried off. The footmen then ſet to work again, and afterwards the matador put an end to his life. The third bull killed two horſes by goring them in the belly. On this occaſion, ten bulls were maſſacred, and the ſpectacle concluded in two hours and a half. The bulls fleſh was immediately ſold to the pòpulace at ten quartos a pound, which amounts to about three pence.

The Romans were not more delighted with the combats of the gladiators and wild beaſts, than the Spaniards are with thoſe entertainments, which are, however, of late years, become far leſs frequent than formerly.

Another diverſion almoſt peculiar to the people of this nation, is that of ſerenading their miſtreſſes. It is performed either with vocal or inſtrumental muſic, the latter of which is extremely rude. In this amuſement, however, there is hardly a young fellow who ſpends not the beſt part of the night, though perhaps almoſt utterly unacquainted

with

with the lady to whom the compliment is paid.

Spain has not produced learned men in proportion to the excellent capacities of its natives; but a few of the Spanish writers are distinguished by extraordinary merit. The memorable Cervantes, the author of Don Quixote, does immortal honour to the country, by his humorous satire, which had the happy effect of exploding the ridiculous spirit of knight-errantry, that universally prevailed in that nation. This extraordinary man was born at Madrid, in 1549. He enlisted in a station little superior to that of a common soldier, and at last died neglected, after fighting bravely for his country at the battle of Lepanto, in which he lost his left hand. He was in prison for debt, when he composed the first part of his history.

Quevedo is also well known for his Visions, and some other productions of the humorous and satirical kind. He was contemporary with Cervantes, and equally excelled in verse and prose. Poetry appears to have been cultivated in Spain at an early period; I mean, however, posterior to the

time

time of the Romans, though under them there were ſeveral Latin poets in Spain. After the Saracens had ſettled in this kingdom, they introduced into it their own language, religion, and literature; and the oriental ſtyle of poetry then very generally prevailed. The Spaniards had before this epoch addicted themſelves much to Roman literature; but abandoning that purſuit, their taſte ran ſo much towards oriental productions, that they could write Arabic with remarkable purity, and compoſed verſes in that language with as much fluency and elegance as the Arabians themſelves. About this time alſo the Spaniſh Jews made a conſiderable figure in literarature; for the purpoſe of promoting which, they brought over men of learning from Babylon, where they maintained academies at their own expence. The Spaniſh Jews had alſo flouriſhing ſchools at Seville, Granada, and Toledo; from whence aroſe the numerous Hebrew proverbs, and modes of ſpeech, that have crept into the Caſtilian language, and form a conſpicuous part of its phraſeology.

The Spaniſh writers alſo boaſt of their Troubadours as far back as the twelfth or thirteenth centuries; the Provençal and Galician dialects being then very prevalent. Many other Spaniſh poets, ſince that time, have gained conſiderable reputation: but the moſt diſtinguiſhed dramatic poet of this country was Lopez de Vega, who was contemporary with our Shakeſpeare. His works diſcover an imagination aſtoniſhingly fertile, but not ſufficiently reſtrained within the bounds of probability. He indeed wrote too much to be correct. His lyric compoſitions, and fugitive pieces, with his proſe eſſays, form a collection of fifty volumes, beſides his dramatic works, which amount to twenty-ſix volumes more; excluſive of four hundred ſcriptural dramatic pieces, called in Spain *Autos Sacramentales.* His genius, ſuch as it was, he exerted with indefatigable induſtry; and this quality appears predominant in ſeveral other Spaniſh writers. Teſtitus, a theologiſt of that nation, was the moſt voluminous that ever wrote; but his works have long been diſtinguiſhed only by their extraordinary bulk. Herrera, and Solis, in particular,

with a few other writers, have diſplayed hiſtorical abilities: but at preſent, a taſte for literature of any kind, is far from being prevalent in Spain. There are, however, in this country, no leſs than twenty-four univerſities, the chief of which is Salamanca, founded by Alphonſus, king of Leon, in the year 1200.

Some Spaniards have likewiſe diſtinguiſhed themſelves in architecture, ſculpture, and painting; of which arts we meet with many excellent ſpecimens in the cities and palaces, particularly the Eſcurial.

Spain contains ſeveral antiquities, both of Roman and Mooriſh origin. Near Segovia, a grand aqueduct, erected by Trajan, extends over a deep valley between two hills, and is ſupported by a double row of a hundred and fifty-two arches. Other Roman aqueducts, theatres, and circi, are to be found at Terrago, and different parts of Spain. Near the city of Salamanca are the remains of a Roman way, paved with large flat ſtones; it extended to Merida, and was thence continued to Seville. At Toledo, once the metropolis of Spain, are the remains of an old Roman theatre,

which

which is now converted into a cathedral. The roof is ſupported by three hundred and fifty pillars of fine marble, in ten rows, forming eleven aiſles, in which are three hundred and ſixty-ſix altars, and twenty-four gates; every part being richly adorned with the moſt noble and coſtly ornaments. At Martorel, a town ſome miles from Barcelona, there is a very high bridge, built in 1768, out of the ruins of a decayed one, which had been erected by Hannibal, and exiſted 1985 years. At the north end is a triumphal arch, or gate-way, ſaid to have been raiſed by that general, in honour of his father Hamilcar. It is ſtill almoſt entire, well proportioned and ſimple, without any kind of ornament, except a rim or two of hewn ſtône. In the neighbourhood of Murviedro, the ancient Saguntum, are ſome remains of a Roman theatre, an exact ſemicircle, about eighty two yards in diameter. Some of the galleries are cut out of a ſolid rock.

Among the Mooriſh antiquities in Spain, the moſt diſtinguiſhed, as well as the moſt entire, is the royal palace of the Alhambra, at Granada. It was built in 1280, by the

ſecond Mooriſh king of Granada; and in 1492, was taken by the Spaniards. It is ſituated on a hill, which is aſcended by a road, bordered with hedges of double or imperial myrtles, and rows of elms. On this hill, within the walls of the Alhambra the Emperor, Charles V. began a new palace in 1568, which was never finiſhed, though the ſhell of it remains. It is built of yellow ſtone. The outſide forms a ſquare of a hundred and ninety feet. The inſide conſiſts of a grand circular court, with a portico of the Tuſcan, and a gallery of the Doric order, each ſupported by thirty-two columns, made of as many ſingle pieces of marble. The grand entrance is ornamented with columns of Jaſper, on the pedeſtals of which are the repreſentations of battles, in marble baſſo relievo. The Alhambra itſelf is a maſs of many houſes, and towers walled round, and built of large ſtones of different dimenſions. Almoſt all the apartments have ſtucco walls and cielings, ſome carved, ſome painted," and others gilt, and covered with various ſentences in the Arabic language. Within are ſeveral baths, the walls floors, and cielings of which are of white marble.

marble. The gardens abound with orange and lemon trees, pomegranates, and myrtles. At the end of the gardens is another palace called Generaliph, ſituated on a more elevated ſtation than the Alhambra. From the balconies of this palace is one of the fineſt proſpects I ever beheld, over the whole fertile plain of Granada; bounded by the ſnowy mountains. The Moors to this day regret the loſs of Granada, and ſtill offer up prayers to God for the recovery of the city. Many other noble monuments, erected in the Mooriſh times, remain in Spain, ſome of them in tolerable preſervation, and others exhibiting ſuperb ruins

Spain is not remarkable for natural curioſities; but a royal cabinet of natural hiſtory was opened at Madrid, for the uſe of the public, by the King's order in 1775. Every thing in this repoſitory is ranged with neatneſs and elegance, but the collection of birds and beaſts, at preſent is not large. The cabinet contains many ſpecimens of Mexican and Peruvian vaſes and utenſils, which evince that the arts had made conſiderable progreſs in thoſe countries.

In blowing up the rock of Gibraltar, many pieces of bones and teeth have been found incorporated with the ſtone; ſome of which have been brought to England, and depoſited in the Britiſh Muſeum. On the weſt ſide of the mountain, is the cave called St. Michael's, eleven hundred and ten feet above the horizon. Many pillars of various ſizes, ſome of them two feet in diameter, have been formed in it by the droppings of water which have petrified in falling. The water perpetually drops from the roof, and forms an infinite number of ſtalactitæ, of a whitiſh colour, compoſed of ſeveral coats or cruſts, and which, as well as the pillars, continually increaſe in bulk.

After ſurveying ſo much of Spain in my preſent letter, I ſhall ſuſpend the farther account of that kingdom till my next; and in the mean time enjoy the hoſpitable entertainment afforded to a Britiſh traveller on the celebrated ſpot of Gibraltar.

LETTER XIX.

IN my progreſs through Spain, I ſtopped ſeveral weeks in the capital of the kingdom, Madrid, which by means of the improvements made lately in point of cleanlineſs, is now become a much more comfortable reſidence than formerly, when the weather is not too hot. This city is environed, at ſome diſtance, with very lofty mountains, the ſummits of which are frequently covered with ſnow, as they were during a part of my excurſion. It is ſurrounded by a mud wall, and contains about three hundred thouſand inhabitants. The ſtreets are ſpacious and handſome, and it is now well paved and lighted. The houſes are of brick, and laid out more for ſhew than conveniency. For one muſt generally paſs through two or three large apartments of

of no uſe, to come at a ſmall room at the end, where the family ſit. The windows, beſides having a balcony, are grated with iron bars, particularly the lower range, and ſometimes all the reſt; ſo that the houſes in general look more like priſons, than the habitations of people at their liberty. Separate families commonly inhabit the ſame houſe, as in Paris, and Edinburgh. Foreigners are often much diſtreſſed for lodgings at Madrid, as the Spaniards are not fond of receiving ſtrangers into their houſes, eſpecially when known to be proteſtants. Proviſions here are cheap, but in the whole city there is neither tavern nor coffee-houſe, and the only newſpaper is the Madrid Gazette, the peruſal of which can afford very little entertainment.

The royal palace ſtands on an eminence, on the weſt ſide of the city. It is a ſpacious and magnificent ſtructure, conſiſting of three courts, and commands a beautiful proſpect. Each of the fronts is four hundred and ſeventy feet in length, and a hundred high. No palace in Europe is fitted up more ſuperbly. The great audience chamber is a hundred and twenty feet long,

and

and hung with crimſon velvet richly embroidered with gold. It is ornamented alſo with twelve looking glaſſes, each ten feet high, and with twelve tables of the fineſt Spaniſh marble. The other royal palaces round the capital are deſigned for hunting-ſeats, or houſes of retirement for the royal family. The chief of theſe are Buen Retiro, Caſa del Campo, Aranjuez, and St. Ildefonzo. The firſt two are not conſpicuous, and Buen Retiro is now ſtripped of all its beſt pictures and furniture. The palace of Aranjuez itſelf is rather an elegant than a magnificent building, but its gardens are extremely delightful. Here is alſo a park many leagues round, cut acroſs in different parts, by alleys of two, three, and even four miles extent. Each of theſe alleys is formed by two double rows of elm-trees on each ſide, which afford a very agreeable ſhade in the ſummer months. The alleys are wide enough to admit of four coaches abreaſt; and between each double row there is a narrow channel, through which runs a ſtream of water. In the intervening ſpaces of the park, there are thick groves of ſmaller trees of various

kinds;

kinds; and thouſands of deer and wild boars wander there at large, beſides numberleſs hares, rabbits, pheaſants, partridges, and ſeveral other kinds of birds. The river Tagus runs through this place, and divides it into two unequal parts. The palace ſtands in the centre of this great park, and is partly ſurrounded by the gardens. which are exceedingly pleaſant, and adorned with fountains and ſtatues.

The palace of St. Ildefonſo is built of brick, plaſtered and painted, but no part of the architecture is agreeable. It is two ſtories high, and the garden front has thirty-one windows, and twelve rooms in a ſuite. The gardens are on a ſlope, on the top of which is a great reſervoir of water, which ſupplies the fountains, and is furniſhed by the torrents which pour down the adjacent hills. In the gardens are twenty-ſeven fountains. The baſons are of white marble, and many of the ſtatues are admirable.

But the boaſt of Spain is the Eſcurial, one of the largeſt edifices in the world. It is ſaid to have been built by Philip II. of Spain, in conſequence of a vow he made to St. Laurence,

Laurence, before the battle of St. Quintin, which was fought on the 10th of Auguſt, 1557. According to the Spaniſh accounts, ſix millions of ducats were expended upon its conſtruction. It conſiſts of ſeveral courts and quadrangles, which altogether are diſpoſed in the ſhape of a gridiron, the inſtrument of the martyrdom of St. Laurence. The building is an oblong ſquare of ſix hundred and forty feet by five hundred and eighty. The height up to the roof is all round ſixty feet, except on the garden ſide, where the ground is more taken away. At each angle is a ſquare tower two hundred feet high. The number of windows in the weſt front is two hundred, in the eaſt three hundred and ſixty-ſix. The orders employed are the Doric and Ionic; but the outward appearance of this vaſt maſs is extremely plain, and far from being gratifying to the view. With its towers, ſmall windows, and ſteep ſloping roof, it certainly exhibits an uncouth ſtyle of architecture; notwithſtanding which, the domes and the prodigious extent of its fronts, render it a wonderfully grand object.

The

The church, which ſtands in the centre of this vaſt convent, is large, awful, and richly, but not affectedly, ornamented. The cupola is bold and light. The high altar is compoſed of rich marbles, agates, and jaſpers, of great rarity, all of them the produce of Spain. Two magnificent *Catafulquas* fill up the ſide arcades of this ſanctuary. On one, the emperor Charles V. his wife, daughter, and two ſiſters, are repreſented in bronze, larger than life, kneeling; oppoſite are the effigies of Philip II. and his two wives, of the ſame materials, and in the ſame devout attitude.

Underneath is the burial place of the royal family, called the Pantheon. This mauſoleum is circular, thirty-ſix feet diameter, and incruſted with fine marble, in an elegant taſte. The bodies of the kings and queens lie in tombs of marble, in niches, one above another. There are twenty-ſix of theſe urns, but as yet only thirteen are filled; the laſt two kings, and all the queens that died without iſſue, being buried elſewhere. The plan of theſe ſepulchres is grand, and executed with a princely magnificence; but the whole may

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appear too light, and two delicately fitted up for the idea we are apt to form of a repository of the dead.

The collection of pictures disposed about various parts of the church, &c. is equal, if not superior, to any gallery in Europe, except that of Dresden. It was formed out of the spoils of Italy, and the wasted cabinet of Charles I. of England; and contains some of the most capital works of the greatest painters that have flourished since the revival of the art. Amongst these is the celebrated *Madonna del Pesca* of Raphael, one of the most valuable pictures in the world. The personages that compose the subject are, the Virgin Mary seated, with her son in her arms. On her right the angel Raphael introduces Tobit, who kneeling presents the fish, which gives name to the whole. On the other side stands St. Jerome, in the habit of a cardinal, kneeling near a lion.

Seville, the julia of the Romans, is next to Madrid, the largest city in Spain, but is greatly decayed both in riches and population. The walls appear to be of Moorish construction. The suburb of Triana is re-

markable for its gloomy Gothic caſtle, where, in 1481, the inquiſition was firſt eſtabliſhed in Spain. The cathedral of this city is a fine Gothic building, with a curious ſteeple or tower, reckoned the greateſt curioſity in Spain; having at the top a moveable figure of a woman, called La Giralda, which turns round with the wind, and is referred to in Don Quixote. The proſpect of the country round this city, beheld from the ſteeple juſt now mentioned, is extremely delightful.

Salamanca is a large, ancient, and populous city, built on three hills and two vallies. There are in it ten gates, and it contains twenty-five churches. The river Tormes runs by this city, and has a bridge over it of twenty-five arches, built by the Romans, and yet entire.

Barcelona, formerly Barcino, is ſaid to have been founded by Hamilcar Barcas. It is ſituated on the Mediterranean, facing Minorca, and is one of the handſomeſt cities in Spain, as well as one of the moſt populous. A ſingular cuſtom prevails here on the firſt of November, the eve of All Souls. They run about from houſe to

houſe

houſe to eat cheſnuts, believing, that with every cheſnut they ſwallow, with proper faith and unction, they ſhall deliver a ſoul out of purgatory.

The interior cities of Spain, and thoſe on the Mediterranean, are in general pleaſant, but I cannot ſay ſo much for Cadiz, the great emporium of Spaniſh commerce. It ſtands on an iſland, ſeparated from the continent of Andaluſia, by a very narrow arm of the ſea, over which is a fortified bridge that joins it to the main land. The entrance into the bay is guarded by two forts. The houſes are lofty, with flat roofs, and moſt of them have a turret for a view of the ſea; but the ſtreets are narrow, ill paved, and naſty, and during night extremely infeſted with rats.

When ſpeaking of Cadiz, I muſt inform you, that all along the coaſt of Spain, there are watch-towers from mile to mile, with lights and guards during night; ſo that from Cadiz to Barcelona, and from Bilboa to Ferrol, the whole kingdom may be ſoon alarmed in caſe of an invaſion.

The annual revenue of Spain is eſtimated at from five to eight millions ſterling. The king

king has likewise a fifth of all the silver mines that are worked in South America; but it is said that very little of this property ever comes into his coffers. The taxes are of various kinds, and in the payment of these the clergy and the military orders are exempted.

In all the courts of Europe, a solemnity of behaviour is usual in the royal presence, and is affected even by the sovereigns themselves; but at Madrid I found it different from any thing I had formerly seen. The Spanish court, in this respect, partakes of the general character of the nation. Politeness is almost entirely lost in a stiffness of demeanour; and in that of the royal family, there is an air of supercilious state, by no means favourable to real dignity. But amidst all this assumed superiority, it is remarkable that this court is distinguished by the toleration of one privilege, respecting which the sovereigns in other countries have been peculiarly reserved. The Spanish nobility, who are unmixed with the Moorish blood, are denominated Hidalgo, and are divided into princes, dukes, marquisses, and other inferior titles. Such as

are created grandees, may ſtand covered before the king, and are treated with princely diſtinctions. Beſides theſe, certain other dignitaries, both in church and ſtate, are allowed the enjoyment of the ſame invidious privilege.

With all the external pomp of royalty, the Spaniſh monarch muſt appear at this moment in a very degrading ſituation. Connected with the royal family of France by the cloſeſt ties of conſanguinity, he entered into a ſolemn treaty with great Britain and other powers, to take up arms againſt the faction which had overturned the government in that country. He had not long perſevered in this train, when changing his meaſures, he not only renounced his engagement, but even entered into a confederacy with thoſe regicides, againſt his former ally. Tergiverſation is a baſeneſs, not unfrequent with ſovereign powers; but that of his Moſt Catholic Majeſty is, like his apoſtolical title, in the ſuperlative degree. He acts in concert with the French republicans, againſt all the united motives of honor, inclination, and intereſt. His treaſury, as deſtitute of riches, as

his councils of wiſdom and magnanimity, he proſecutes a war immediately pernicious to the commerce of his kingdom, and ultimately, even if ſucceſsful, fatal to the exiſtence of his crown. The eventual eſtabliſhment of the preſent French government would operate as an incentive to revolution in all the provinces of Spain; and the degraded ſtate of that monarchy would not a little facilitate the change.

LETTER

LETTER XX.

QUITTING a kingdom, declined from its grandeur through ruinous impolicy, I ſtep next into one which has long, if not always, been inconſiderable from its natural weakneſs; namely, that of Portugal, the ancient Luntania of the Romans. The laſt object we viewed in Spain, was the monarch tottering upon his throne; and here we are preſented with a ſimilar proſpect of the viciſſitudes of human grandeur, though from a cauſe ſuperior to the ſagacity or prevention of mortals. But enough of this melancholy ſubject.

The air of Portugal, eſpecially about Liſbon, is ſoft and genial, but the ſoil, in general, is not equally favorable to the production of corn with that of Spain. The fruits, however, are the ſame as in the latter,

ter, though not ſo highly flavoured. The face of this country is mountainous, or rather rocky, for the mountains are generally barren. The chief rivers are thoſe of Spain, all of which running weſtward, fall into the Atlantic Ocean. Among theſe the Tagus, or Tayo, was anciently celebrated for its golden ſand.

Liſbon, the capital of Portugal, is beautifully ſituated on the north banks of the Tagus, in the form of a creſcent. Though a great part of it was ruined by an earthquake in 1755, it ſtill contains many magnificent palaces, churches, and public buildings; and is deſervedly accounted the greateſt port in Europe, next to London and Amſterdam.

Like Rome, it is built on ſeven hills. The ſtreets are narrow and ſteep, very badly paved with ſharp ſtones; nor are they lighted at night. The houſes are generally two ſtories high, ſometimes three, without any other chimney than that of the kitchen. The number of houſes at the time of the earthquake above-mentioned, was computed at thirty thouſand. The houſes of the citizens are ill contrived buildings, with

lattice

lattice windows; but thoſe of the nobility are grand ſtructures, built of hewn ſtone. Few have courts before them, but they are generally furniſhed with yards and gardens, and occupy a great extent of ground. The town being deſtitute of common ſewers, all naſtineſs is thrown into the ſtreets in the night-time, as was the caſe till lately at Madrid, of which city it has however an advantage, by the ſtreets lying upon a deſcent, and being therefore more eaſily cleaned. It is ſurrounded by an old wall and towers, and has a caſtle on a hill, which commands the place, but could make no great defence in caſe of a ſiege. Beſides the cathedral, there are here forty pariſh churches with as many monaſteries of both ſexes, which make a tolerable appearance.

Among the buildings the royal palace is the moſt remarkable. As the plan has never been completed, the ſtructure is not very regular; but lying upon the river, it commands a fine proſpect of the country on the oppoſite ſide, as well as of the port and the ocean.

The moſt magnificent church is that of the Dominicans, in which are three chapels, almoſt entirely covered with gold from the pavement to the roof. In one of thoſe the holy ſacrament is continually expoſed. This chapel is illuminated with wax tapers, and a vaſt number of lamps; and over the portal are inſcribed the names of thoſe who have been burnt by the inquiſition. The magnificence of the convent is ſuitable to that of the church; and near it is the palace of the Inquiſition, to which the Portugeuſe give the name of Santa Caſa, or the Holy Houſe. In the front there is a fine fountain, adorned with marble ſtatues, throwing out water on every ſide.

In the church dedicated to the Mother of God, every Holy Thurſday they ſhew the handkerchief ſaid to be uſed by our Saviour at his crucifixion; a relic not unfrequent in many other popiſh churches.

Another church here is much admired, founded by the queen of John V. the ſides of which are lined with ebony, and the roof ſupported by pillars of the ſame.

The palace of Alcantara ſtands a mile weſt of Liſbon. It is a magnificent ſtruc-

ture,

ture, but chiefly admired for its beautiful gardens, which abound in grottos, fountains, and caſcades, and are planted with orange and citron trees, and the choiceſt flowers of the climate. In the adjoining valley is the celebrated aqueduct which joins two hills. The number of arches in this part is thirty-five, fourteen of which are large, and the others ſmaller. The largeſt is three hundred and thirty feet in height and forty-nine in width. Towards the city there are ten arches of inferior dimenſions, and many leſs near the ſource of the water which ſupplies the aqueduct. The water thus conveyed is emptied in a great reſervoir at one of the extremities of Liſbon. This aqueduct is built of a kind of white marble. The pillars which ſupport the arches are ſquare, the largeſt meaſuring thirty-three feet at each ſide of the baſe.

The palace of Bellem is a mean wooden edifice, but the church and cloiſters are noble buildings. The former of theſe is lined from top to bottom with jaſper and the fineſt marbles; and here are the tombs of ſeveral of the kings of Portugal, admirably executed.

Near

Near the mouth of the Tagus, is a promontory, or cape, anciently named *Promontorium Lunæ*, and which the British mariners distinguish by the name of the Rock of Lisbon. This is a branch of a high mountain, formerly called the Mountain of the Moon, and at present Mount Cintra; on the top of which is a fine monastery, dedicated to our Lady of the Rock, and a church, whither people resort in great numbers, to perform their devotion for nine days. Both the church and cloyster, with an inn that stands near them for the accommodation of the devotees, are hewn out of the solid rock. This lofty situation commands one of the most beautiful prospects in the world. At the foot of the mountain, on the promontory, are the ruins of an ancient temple, dedicated to the Sun and Moon, on one of the pillars of which, a part of a Latin inscription is still visible.

About twenty-two miles to the southward of Lisbon, at the bottom of a fine bay, stands Setubal, commonly called St. Ube's. It is a modern town, built out of the ruins of the ancient Cetobriga, which

stood

ſtood a little to the weſtward, and had in it a temple dedicated to Jupiter Ammon, of which there are yet ſome remains. Here is a great manufacture of white ſalt, which is exported to the north countries of Europe, and to America. The capital of the province of Alentajo is Ebora, ſituated about ſixty miles ſouth-eaſt of Liſbon, on a hill encompaſſed with mountains. It is three miles in circumference, ſurrounded by an antique wall and towers. This city is ſaid to have been built by the Phœnicians, who gave it the name of Ebora, in alluſion to the fruitfulneſs of the ſoil. Julius Cæſar changed its name to Liberalitas Julia, as appears from an ancient inſcription. This was a conſiderable town in the time of the Gothic kings. It remained under the dominion of the Moors till the year 1166, when king Alphonſo retook it, with the other towns of the province. The vallies in this part of the country are exceeding fruitful, and there are mines of ſilver in the mountains.

Eſtremos ſtands near twenty miles north-eaſt of Ebora, on a hill, and is divided into the Higher and Lower town, the former

ſerving

serving as a castle to the latter. The houses of the people of condition are built of white marble, and make an elegant appearance. Here is a manufacture of fine red earthenware, and without the town is a fountain, endowed with the quality of petrifying almost whatever is thrown into it.

On a hill, about twenty-four miles to the eastward of Estremos, lies Elvas, near the frontiers of the Spanish Estremadura. It is well-built, is defended by a castle, and strongly fortified. Here is a cistern so large, that it could hold water enough to supply the whole town for six months. This place is of great antiquity, and was formerly called Helvis, from a people of Gaul who built it. It is at present esteemed one of the strongest fortresses in the kingdom, and the neighbouring country affords some of the best wines in Portugal.

In the northern part of Portugal, the principal town is Braga. This is a very ancient city, and was known to the Romans by the name of Bracara Augusta. When the Suevi came from Germany, and made a conquest of Galicia and Portugal, this was the seat of their government, and continued

tinued to be the capital of a kingdom under their ſucceſſors the Goths. The houſes are generally old ſtone buildings, without much elegance. Even the cathedral and archbiſhop's palace are more admired for their antiquity and magnitude, than the beauty of their architecture. This prelate is both ſpiritual and temporal lord of the place; on which account he has a ſword as well as a croſs carried before him. He diſputes the primacy with the archbiſhop of Toledo in Spain.

Cimbra ſtands on an eminence on the north-ſide of the river Mondego. The bridge of this place is a fine ſtone fabric, conſiſting of two rows of arches, one above another, and forms a covered way, through which people paſs, without being expoſed to the weather. The aqueduct which brings water to the town is alſo much admired. The cathedral, and other churches and monaſteries, are handſome buildings, but the private houſes not elegant. The city is diſtinguiſhed by one of the tribunals of Inquiſition, and the moſt celebrated univerſity in Portugal; in the latter of which there are fifty profeſſors.

There is in this country a great number of other towns, befides thofe above mentioned; and amongft them I muft not omit Oporto, which contains about thirty thoufand inhabitants, and is reckoned the fecond city in the kingdom. The chief article of commerce here is wine, of which our own country is allowed the diftinction of confuming by far the greater part. Half the fhops in this place are thofe of wine-coopers. In the principal ftreet the merchants affemble daily to tranfact bufinefs; and they are protected fom the fun by awnings hung acrofs from the houfes on each fide. Here are feveral Englifh families, who are chiefly concerned in the wine-trade.

Since the difcovery of the rich mines in Brazil, and the fuppreffion of the Jefuits and other religious inftitutions, the revenues of the crown are computed to be worth near four millions; notwithftanding which the forces of the kingdom are very inconfiderable. The military eftablifhment, tho' now improving, confifted for many years only of a raw and undifciplined militia; and with refpect to naval force, the

Portu-

Portugueſe are the leaſt formidable of all the maritime powers. Their ſecurity againſt the encroachments of Spain, ſeems to depend chiefly on the matrimonial connexions of the two crowns; and on the commercial alliance which it is always the intereſt of Portugal to maintain with the Britiſh nation.

About the middle of the ſixteenth century, and for ſome time after, the Portugueſe were more eminent for the knowlege of aſtronomy, geography, and navigation, than all other nations put together. But learning of every kind is now at an extreme low ebb in Portugal; owing not to any defect of genius, but to the want of proper education. There are, however, amongſt them a few univerſities, viz. that of Cimbra, before-mentioned, founded in 1291; Evora, about the middle of the ſixteenth century; and a college at Liſbon, where the young nobility are educated.

The Luſiad of Camoëns may be ſaid to be the only work of genius ever produced by a native of this country. In general, the fine arts are uncultivated; and with reſpect to that of painting, in particular,

there is not, I believe, in the whole kingdom, a ſingle picture from any of the Italian ſchools.

Antiquities in this country are not numerous; but the Roman bridge and aqueduct are almoſt entire, and deſervedly admired. The walls of Santareen are likewiſe ſaid to be of Roman erection. Some caſtles in the Mooriſh taſte ſtill exiſt in different parts. The church and monaſtery near Liſbon, where the kings of Portugal are buried, are extremely magnificent; and ſeveral monaſteries, in other places are dug out of the hard rock. The chapel of St. Roch is allowed to be one of the fineſt and richeſt in the world. The paintings are executed in Moſaic, and ſo curiouſly wrought with ſtones of different colours, as to exhibit an appearance equally delightful and aſtoniſhing.

In general, the Portugeuſe are neither ſo tall nor ſo well made, as the Spaniards, but they moſtly imitate the habits and cuſtoms of that people. The ladies I think dreſs even more magnificently than thoſe of Spain; and they are taught to exact from their ſervants an homage, which in other

countries

countries is only paid to royal perſonages. In compenſation, however, for this ſubmiſſion, they never diſcharge any perſon who has been in the ſervice of their anceſtors; on which account, in ſome families, the number of domeſtics is very great. In the houſes of the nobility, the furniture is rich and ſuperb to exceſs; but the poorer ſort have ſcarcely any furniture at all; and in imitation of the Moors, they ſit always croſs-legged on the ground. As the Spaniards have relaxed in national induſtry ſince the diſcovery of America, ſo have the Portugueſe degenerated in all their virtues, from the time that the houſe of Braganza aſcended the throne: for they retain no trace of that ſpirit of enterpriſe which ſo much diſtinguiſhed their forefathers in the fifteenth century. It is ſuppoſed that their degeneracy is owing to the weakneſs of their monarchy, which renders them inactive, from an apprehenſion of giving offence to their more powerful neighbours. This fatal inactivity proves the ſource of ſeveral vices; among which the Portugueſe are particularly charged with treachery, ingratitude, and an intemperate paſ-

ſion for revenge. By the lower people thieving is very commonly practiſed; and all ranks are accuſed of being unfair in their dealings, eſpecially with ſtrangers.

Beſides ordinary ſervants, the quality retain many dwarfs, and they have alſo a train of ſlaves, both Turks and Moors, each of whom is valued at four or five hundred crowns. The maſters formerly had the power of life and death over this claſs of their dependants, but the government now reſtrains them from the exerciſe of capital juriſdiction, though they continue to inflict corporal puniſhment with great ſeverity. Thoſe ſlaves, however, are incomparably the beſt ſervants in Portugal; for the other ſervants having the common pride of the nation, often prove refractory, and are apt to be extremely impertinent. Even beggars aſk alms with a tone that ſavours more of requiſition than intreaty; alledging, that they are deſcended from primitive chriſtians, or the ancient Gothic nobility.

The ladies here often ride on *burros*, or jack-aſſes, with a pack ſaddle. A ſervant attends with a ſharp ſtick, which he uſes inſtead of a whip; and for retarding the

the beaſt when it goes too quick, the expedient is to pull it by the tail. Coaches are not ſo frequent among the Portugueſe as in Spain, but in place of them the litter or mule is commonly uſed on a journey; and in many parts, the moſt common way of travelling is by water.

In Portugal, nobility is not hereditary. The chief order of knighthood is called the *Order of Chriſt*, and was inſtituted in 1283. Though worn by the king himſelf, it is often proſtituted to the meaneſt candidates for royal favour, and is become ſo common, as almoſt to preclude the diſtinction which it was meant to confer.

LETTER XXI.

THE boundaries of Italy have been fixed by nature, but no other country has fluctuated more with respect to its internal divisions. Extraordinary changes have taken place within the last two years; and even at the moment I am writing to you they are still proceeding. In what a state of subjection is, at present, the king of Sardinia, hitherto denominated the Janus of Italy, as being its constant guardian against the encroachments of the French! Where is now the republic of Genoa, formerly distinguished for its opulence and power? And where the superior republic of Venice, one of the most celebrated since the extinction of the Roman? But greater still, in point of fame, Where the Ecclesiastical State, the seat of papal hierarchy, and formerly

formerly the capital of the world? Even thither, we find, the revolutionary principles and violence of the French have penetrated. They have driven from his throne, without the ſmalleſt reſiſtance, a power, whoſe predeceſſors, ſome centuries ago, gave law to the nations of Chriſtendom, and ſhook eſtabliſhed kingdoms to their foundations with the thunder of the Vatican. Whether theſe great events be really the accompliſhment of ſcriptural predictions, as is the opinion of ſome, I am not ſuch a caſuiſt as to take upon me to determine; but they doubtleſs afford uſeful leſſons both to kings and their people. To the former they inculcate moderation in the exerciſe of power and authority; and to the latter they proclaim the expediency of the ſame virtue, in all attempts to the reſiſtance of either. A mob may, in the rage of violence, overturn an eſtabliſhed conſtitution; but the chance is a thouſand to one, that they never will be able to erect any adequate ſubſtitute in its room; and when the paroxyſm of revolutionary phrenzy has ceaſed, they will experience ſuch a relaxation in the political ſyſtem, as no-

thing will preserve from the most fatal effects, but a recurrence to arbitrary power. The country may, in the mean time, be deluged with blood, and exposed to all the horrors of anarchy; while in the end, public freedom is found to have been sacrificed to a nominal change in the government.

In taking a view of Italy I shall begin in the most northern part with the Duchy of Savoy. This country belongs to its own Duke, who, since the commencement of the present century, is better known by the title of King of Sardinia, an island in the Mediterranean. From its situation close to the Alps, it is mountainous and barren, but contains some pleasant fruitful vallies, producing corn, wine, and fruits, and affording pasture to numerous herds of cattle.

In this country are the celebrated Glaciers, which are five in number. They extend almost to the plain of the vale of Chamouny, and are separated by wild forests, corn-fields, and rich meadows; so that immense tracts of ice are blended with the highest cultivation, and perpetually succeed to each other, in the most singular

and ſtriking viciſſitude. The Glacier of Furca extends at leaſt three miles in length, and near a mile in breadth; ſtretching from the feet of huge ſhagged rocks of great height, and reaching almoſt to their ſummits. This glacier is the principal ſource from whence the Rhone takes its riſe. That river here foams with amazing rapidity, and falls in a continual cataract at the foot of prodigious mountains. In theſe mountains likewiſe are the ſources of the Aer, which rolls down in an impetuous torrent from the neighbouring glaciers. It is aſtoniſhing what a chaos of mountains are here heaped upon one another! In the vicinity of this ſcene is alſo the ſource of the Reichen, which rolls in numerous cataracts down the ſteep ſides of Mount Sheidec, until it forms a junction with the Aer. The celebrated fall of the Stoubback rolls down perpendicularly from a height of nine hundred and thirty feet. One contemplates with aſtoniſhment the great central chain of the Alps; rocks towering above rocks, and mountains riſing above mountains, not more diſtinguiſhed for their ſtupendous heights, than for the

 immenſe

immenſe variety and rudeneſs of their forms. Mount Blanc is particularly diſtinguiſhed, by having its ſummits and ſides, to a conſiderable depth, covered with ſnow, almoſt without the intervention of the leaſt rock to break the glare of the white appearance, from whence its name is derived.

Turin, the capital of Savoy, ſtands at the confluence of the Po and Doria, and I may ſay with juſtice, is one of the fineſt cities in Europe. The ſtreets and ſquares are ſpacious, the buildings lofty and magnificent, and the royal palace in particular, a beautiful ſtructure. The ordinary income of the king, beſides his own demeſnes, have been eſtimated at half a million ſterling; but his revenues are now greatly reduced by the dilapidations of the French. The fate of this venerable prince, (I mean the father of the preſent king), has a diſtant reſemblance to that of Priam. He did not live, indeed, to ſee the extinction of almoſt all his offspring, but he had the pain to behold a miſerable reduction of his family, and an almoſt total annihilation of his crown. His anceſtor, Victor Amadeus, was the laſt

laſt prince who gave the world an inſtance of magnanimity, by retiring from the exerciſe of ſovereign power, while his dominions were in a ſtate of proſperity, and his own health and conſtitution unimpaired.

While I was paſſing the Alps, my imagination recalled to view the celebrated perſons of ancient times, who had croſſed theſe mountains at the head of numerous armies. You will know that I mean Hannibal and Julius Cæſar. In comparing theſe commanders with each other, I remarked a great diverſity in ſeveral particulars reſpecting them, with which I beg leave to preſent you.

The principal motive which Hannibal had for leading his army acroſs the Alps, was a hereditary hatred to the Romans, which, when nine years old, at the deſire of his father, he ſolemnly ſwore at the altar never to abandon. But the motive of Cæſar, in his paſſage of theſe mountains, was ambition. They were both great commanders; but Hannibal was a barbarian, Cæſar an accompliſhed ſcholar, and an elegant writer.

The

The Carthaginian forfeited all his success by not improving his victory; the Roman obtained his final and decisive victory by improving a defeat. Hannibal fled from the field of Zama, a wretched exile, into Asia; Cæsar on the plain of Pharsalia, rose master of the world. The former expired by a voluntary death, after all his military efforts had terminated in disappintment; the latter by the hands of assassins, when, to use his own remark, he had lived sufficiently long to nature and to glory.

I am strongly of opinion, from the general contrariety of their fortunes, that had Cæsar flourished during the second Punic war, Hannibal would never have remained any considerable time within the limits of Italy. I shall not say, that in fighting with such an antagonist, Cæsar would have used the laconic terms which he did on mentioning his defeat of Pharnaces, *veni, vidi, vici*; but I think, at the same time, it never could have been said of *him*, *cunctando restituit rem*. His natural ardor of mind, his thirst of glory, his well-founded confidence in himself, and the attachment of his veteran legions; all these

causes would have urged him soon to an engagement. Between two generals of such abilities, and two armies actuated with such inveterate and mutual animosity, the contest must have been fierce and obstinate; but it is probable that the military skill, and good fortune of Cæsar would have procured him the victory. Hannibal would have been forced to retreat from Italy with precipitation; or perhaps his destiny might have reserved him for a more ignoble alternative, to follow, in ignominious chains, the triumphal procession of his conqueror; while amidst the general chorus of *Io Triumphe!* the temples of the gods would have resounded with praises, for the just retribution of Punic faith.

But this would have only been a prelude to a yet more signal catastrophe. Cæsar, by his eloquence, would have induced the senate to retaliate the invasion of their country. A transport of patriotism would have burst from the Roman capital, in acclamations of vengeance on their inveterate rival; and the applauding people have joined with the Patrician order, in nominating to the important command, the conqueror

of

of Hannibal. With an army flushed with victory, he would have immediately crossed the Mediterranean, as he formerly had done the British Channel; and gathering fresh laurels on the plains of Carthage, Cæsar, and not Scipio, would have been the Africanus of Rome.—But I have inadvertently led you into Africa sooner than I intended, and shall therefore break off.

LETTER

LETTER XXII.

I HAVE already hinted at the fluctuations of government in Italy, both in ancient and modern times. In the former period, thoſe changes aroſe chiefly from arbitrary uſurpations of power: but in the latter, to this cauſe has been joined the intrigues of the church. It is a mortifying conſideration, that the aſcendancy acquired by the Roman pontiffs over the nations of Chriſtendom, was almoſt conſtantly employed, either in temporizing, for its own advantage, or fomenting jealouſies and diviſions deſtructive to other powers. Arrogating to themſelves an authority for diſpenſing with the eternal laws of God, as ſuited their own paſſions or intereſts, they tyrannized over the conſciences of men; and under the ſpecious maſk of the miniſters of

of peace, were in fact the dæmons of discord.

The next Italian district in our progress southward, is the Milanese, which lately belonged to the House of Austria, but has, in the plenitude of French usurpation, been converted into a republic, and sufficiently fleeced of its riches. This province, when under its own dukes, gave law to all Italy; but what may be its future importance in the scale of power, or how long it may retain its new form of government, I shall not express any conjecture. The beauty and fertility of the country, however, is almost incredible. Its former revenue was estimated at three hundred thousand pounds. The capital, Milan, contains about thirty thousand inhabitants, and is furnished with a magnificent cathedral in the Gothic taste. To this duchy was incorporated that of Mantua; and in their united state, they took the name of Austrian Lombardy. I cannot mention Mantua without recalling to mind, by an association of ideas, the adjoining village of Cremona, (now Andes) which had the honour of giving birth to the immortal Virgil. Is it not surprizing, that

that no monument to his memory has ever been erected at this place? But indeed, he has himſelf raiſed one, of greater duration than braſs or marble; and he was ambitious of doing ſo:

Tentanda via eſt, quâ me quoque poſſim
Tollere humo victorque virûm volitare per ora.

GEORG. lib. iii.

Let me add, that in Mantua the poet Taſſo was born.

Continuing our route ſtill towards the ſouth, we arrive at Genoa, the preſent ſtate of which I anticipated in my laſt letter. The city is ſuperb, and contains ſome very magnificent palaces, with conſiderably more than a hundred thouſand inhabitants; but with all its external grandeur, its maritime power had almoſt totally declined; and the chief ſafety of the republic conſiſted in the jealouſy of other European powers, who were each appehenſive leſt it ſhould become an acquiſition to any other than themſelves. The principal manufactures of this place are velvets, damaſks, gold and ſilver tiſſues, and paper.

The

The government was ariſtocratical, being veſted in the nobility, and the chief magiſtrate had the title of Doge, or Duke. He was choſen every two years; and none could be promoted to this dignity till he was fifty years of age. The common people of Genoa are extremely wretched, and the ſoil of its territory very barren; but near the ſea, ſome parts are tolerably well cultivated. The republic, however, poſſeſſed a revenue barely ſufficient to preſerve the appearance of a ſovereign ſtate.

In my tour through Italy, I had the good fortune to meet, at this place, with an amiable Engliſh Lady, whom I had formerly ſeen at London, where ſhe married Mr. Cileſia, a native of Genoa, who had been ſome years in England in a public capacity. She was the eldeſt daughter of Mr. Mallet, who ranks high in the liſt of Britiſh poets; and ſhe inherited, from her father, a great taſte for poetry: to which ſhe joined an uncommon proficiency in muſic. I found myſelf ſo much at home in this family, for Mr. Cileſia likewiſe was a moſt agreeable and accompliſhed perſon, that I came again by Genoa, on my return

from

from the ſouth, and made a ſtay of ſome weeks.

Happening to tell Mrs. Cileſia of what had occurred at Ferney, the humour ſeized her likewiſe of giving me an exerciſe in poetry; and ſhe requeſted that next morning I ſhould produce an addreſs to a lady of the higheſt diſtinction. To avoid all appearance of perſonal conſiderations in her choice, ſhe fixed upon Semiramis, Queen of Babylon. In compliance with her deſire, I accordingly wrote the following verſes, which I ſend you for your amuſement.

O Thou! whoſe luſtre gilds Aſſyria's throne,
Whoſe royal cares applauding millions own,
Accept the tribute which thy fame inſpires,
Thy fame productive of the poet's fires;
Who ſcorns alike to taint his gen'rous lays,
With venal pomp, or proſtituted praiſe.

How ſhall the muſe in ardent verſe diſplay,
The matchleſs ſplendor of th' auſpicious day,
When firſt thou, deckt in all thy radiant charms,
With rapture bleſs'd th' exulting monarch's arms;
When feſtive triumph reign'd without alloy,
And Babylon's towers proclaim'd the public joy?

How ſhall her ſtrains, expanding with her view,
Attempt the glorious ſubject to purſue;
When cities captur'd, and when king's o'erthrown,
Thou ſtretch'd thy conqueſts o'er a world unknown?
Then India's plains beheld thy martial toils,
Whilſt vanquiſh'd nations trembled for their ſpoils.
Then lofty Bagiſtan, untrod before,
Thy pow'r acknowledg'd, and thy trophies bore.
The gods aſtoniſh'd ſaw thy ſtructures riſe,
And hail'd a ſecond Venus to the ſkies.

Long as Euphrates ſhall his waters roll,
Long as ſhall ſtand the Babylonian Mole,
Long as thy empire's glory, ne'er ſurpaſt,
Or thine own more than human works ſhall laſt;
From envy, rage, and time itſelf ſe ure,
Thy fame, immortal princeſs! ſhall endure.

LETTER

LETTER XXIII.

THE republic of Venice is now no more, and I therefore can ſpeak of it only as it formerly exiſted; but in reſpect of its topographical ſituation, I ſtill may uſe the preſent tenſe. It is ſeated on ſeventy-two iſlands, near the end of the Adriatic Sea, and is ſeparated from the Continent by a marſhy lake of five Italian miles in breadth, its chief defence againſt any attack from that quarter. Venice, when I was there, preſerved the veſtiges of its ancient magnificence, but in every other reſpect, was degenerated. The conſtitution of this republic was originally democratical, and the magiſtrates were choſen by a general aſſembly of the people; till, after various changes, a body of nobility was formed, which becoming hereditary, took into their

own hands the whole of the government, both legiſlative and executive, and a complete ariſtocracy was eſtabliſhed. The nobility were divided into ſix claſſes, amounting altogether to two thouſand five hundred; each of whom, at the age of twenty-five years, was entitled to be a member of the grand council. Theſe elected a Doge, or chief magiſtrate, who was inveſted with great ſtate, and with the emblems of ſupreme authority; but ſo limited was his power, that he was not permitted to ſtir from the city without obtaining leave of the grand council.

The Venetian nobility, like the ſenators of ancient Rome, were habited in a manner different from the other claſſes of the people, but not in the faſhion of the Patricians. They all wore black gowns, large wigs, and caps which they held in their hands. I was once preſent at the annual ceremony of the Doge's marrying the Adriatic Sea, by dropping a ring into it from his ſtate gondola, or barge. He was accompanied at this ſolemnity by the whole body of the nobility, in their different barges; and tho' it was the moſt ſuperb exhibition in Venice,

I did not think it comparable in pomp even to a Lord Mayor's ſhew. But in the grandeur of the city, particularly the public buildings, Venice was almoſt without a rival. There are near five-hundred bridges over the ſeveral canals in Venice, and the greater part of them of ſtone. The chief manufactures of this place were ſcarlet cloth, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, and above all, fine looking glaſſes.

The Venetians are a lively ingenious people, and in general ſober, though extravagantly fond of public amuſements. I counted eight or nine theatres, including the opera-houſes. It was uſual for great numbers of ſtrangers to viſit this city during the time of the carnival, and to thoſe the natives were always extremely obliging. The cuſtom of going about in maſks at Venice was prevalent; but I could not find that there was ſo much ground for the imputation of licentiouſneſs as has been generally ſaid.

Some centuries ago, the Venetians were the moſt formidable maritime power in Europe. Towards the end of the twelfth century, they conquered Conſtantinople,

then the ſeat of the eaſtern empire, and held it for ſome time, together with great part of the Continent of Europe and Aſia. For many years they monopolized the trade of India; but the diſcovery of a paſſage to that country by the Cape of Good Hope, gave the firſt blow to their greatneſs, which was afterwards farther reduced by confederacies formed againſt them among the other powers of Europe.

Padua is ſituated twenty-two miles weſt of Venice, on a fine plain, watered by the rivers Brintac and Bachiglione, and is about ſeven miles in circumference; but the ground within the walls is not half built at preſent. It was formerly, however, one of the moſt flouriſhing cities in Italy. In the time of the Romans, the inhabitants amounted to a hundred thouſand; but at preſent they do not exceed thirty-thouſand: and the Univerſity, which was ſo famous two or three hundred years ago, is now reduced to one college. Here is ſtill a manufacture of woollen cloth; and the adjacent country abounds with oil and wine, and the moſt delicious fruits: but the people live in great poverty, from the tyranny

of the Venetian republic. They ſhew at this place an image of the Bleſſed Virgin, which, according to their legendary creed, flew thither from Conſtantinople, when that city was taken by the Turks. Padua was the birth place of the celebrated Roman hiſtorian, Titus Livius; and we are told by Virgil, that it was originally built by Antenor.

Antenor potuit, mediis elapſus Achivis,
Illyricos penetrare ſinus, atque intima tutus
Regna Liburnorum & fontem ſuperare Timavi:
Unde per ora novem vaſto cum murmure montis
It mare proruptum & pelago premit arva ſonanti.
Hic tamen ille urbem Patavi ſedeſque locavit
Teucrorum, & genti nomen dedit, armaque fixit
Troïa.

There is not at preſent a more flouriſhing ſtate in Italy, than the duchy and city of Parma, with the duchies of Placentia and Gueſtella. Both in Parma and Placentia the ſoil is fertile, and produces the richeſt fruits and paſturages. The former contains conſiderable manufactures of ſilk. It is the ſeat of a biſhopric, and an Univerſity; and ſome of its magnificent churches are painted by

by the celebrated Correggio. The city of Parma is computed to contain fifty thouſand inhabitants. Hiſtory has tranſmitted, without diſguiſe, that the firſt Duke of Parma was natural ſon to Pope Paul III. It would ſeem as if the cuſtom had not then been introduced of denominating a perſon ſo nearly related to the holy father, the Pope's *nephew*.

The Duchy of Modena, formerly Mutina, is governed by its own Duke, the head of the houſe of Eſte, from whom the family of Brunſwick is deſcended. The Duke of York, brother to King Charles II. married the Princeſs Mary, ſiſter to the Duke of Modena, 1673; and to this match were aſcribed the misfortunes which he incurred after aſcending the throne.

Lucca is ſituated in a ſmall delightful plain, on the Tuſcan Sea, and is the capital of a ſmall republic; the territory of which is ſo well improved, that though the population does not exceed a hundred and twenty thouſand, their annual revenue is computed at eighty thouſand pounds ſterling. So much are the inhabitants of this republic devoted to liberty, that they bear its name

upon

upon their arms; and its image is not only impreſſed in their coin, but alſo on the city gates, and all their public buildings.

The Duchy of Tuſcany is an extenſive territory in this quarter, being a hundred and fifty miles long, and about a hundred broad. The capital, Florence, called, on account of its beauty, Florence the Fair, is one of the moſt elegant cities in Italy, and ſuppoſed to contain about ſeventy thouſand inhabitants. The valuable collection of Greek and Roman antiquities in the Grand Duke's palace, ſurpaſſes deſcription, and is the admiration of all travellers. In a room called the Tribunal, ſtands the celebrated Venus of Medicis, univerſally regarded as a maſter-piece of ſtatuary, and as the ſtandard of taſte in female beauty and proportion. A part of one of its arms has been broken off, but is ſupplied with ſtucco, painted. So exquiſite is the workmanſhip of this ſtatue, that ſoftneſs and animation ſeem to be united in the marble. She ſtands in the attitude deſcribed by Ovid:

Ipſa Venus pubes, quoties velamina ponit,
Protegitur lævâ ſemireducta manu.

The

The inſcription on the baſe aſſigns the production of it to Cleomenes, an Athenian, the ſon of Apollodorus. It is of white marble, and ſurrounded with other admirable ſpecimens of Greek ſculpture, ſome of which are ſaid to be the work of Praxiteles. Indeed every quarter of this beautiful city exhibits wonders in the arts of ſtatuary, painting, and architecture.

Florence ſtands between mountains covered with olive trees, vineyards, and delightful villas, and is divided by the Arno. Statues and fountains are ſeen in almoſt every ſtreet. The private buildings are lofty, the ſquares ſpacious; and the churches, the number of which is prodigious, are little inferior to thoſe of Rome. Here is an Archbiſhop's ſee, and a Univerſity, as well as ſeveral academies. The Florentines boaſt of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of the Academia Della Cruſca, which is doubtleſs a uſeful inſtitution, and has ſerved to refine the language of the country.

In general, the people of condition in Florence affect great ſtate; yet the nobility and gentry ſcruple not to drive a retail trade

in

in wines, which they ſell from their cellar windows; and it is not uncommon to ſee a broken flaſk hang out as a ſign of the traffic. But wine is not the only commodity in which they deal; they can likewiſe ſupply purchaſers with fruits, and are even haberdaſhers in gold and ſilver ſtuffs.

The other principal towns of Tuſcany are, Piſa, famous for its hanging tower; Leghorn, and Sienna. Piſa lies on the river Arno, and is now greatly decayed. Sienna is much in the ſame ſituation, but ſtands on an eminence, in a pleaſant fruitful country, and is elegantly built. Leghorn is a handſome city, well fortified, and has a commodious and ſecure harbour. It is a free port, and the number of inhabitants is computed at forty-thouſand.

The Hetrurians, the ancient inhabitants of this country, derived their origin from the remoteſt antiquity; but it is generally allowed, that they were a colony from Lydia.

————*Lydia quondam*
Gens bello præclara Jugis inſedit Etruſcis.

VIRGIL.

It

It is certain that they flouriſhed in Italy before the Trojan war. Many ancient hiſtorians bear teſtimony to the fame of this people. Diodorus Siculus calls them φιλοτεχνοι, *lovers of the arts*; and we are told by Heraclides Ponticus, that Homer made a viſit to their country, in conſequence of the reputation in which they were held. They were no leſs renowned for arms than for arts; and it was not till almoſt five hundred years after the building of Rome, that the whole power of the Romans could overthrow them. They were much addicted to ſuperſtition and divination, though their religious records are now loſt. But the loſs of thoſe writings deſerves little to be regretted, in compariſon of the more valuable monuments of their political conſtitution, and the famous book on the Tuſcan laws, written by Ariſtotle. We need no farther evidence of both their civil and military virtues, than that it was by adopting the Tuſcan cuſtoms, and by the continual exerciſe of arms in the wars which they maintained againſt the Romans, that the latter became qualified to attain the ſummit of grandeur, to which they

they at laſt arrived. As the people of Hetruria conteſted for antiquity with thoſe of Egypt, their learning has alſo ſhared the ſame fate with the hieroglyphics of that nation; for the language and the characters of the Hetrurians are now no more underſtood.

The republic of St Marino may be eſteemed a political curioſity. The whole of its territories conſiſt of a high craggy mountain, with a few eminences at the bottom. The inhabitants boaſt of having preſerved their liberties, as a republic, for 1300 years, and it is probable that their poverty may continue to exempt them from any change by French devaſtation.

LETTER

LETTER XXIV.

THE ecclesiastical state is situated about the middle of Italy, and exhibits, in the strongest light, the pernicious effects of popish tyranny and superstition. Those spots which under the masters of the world were adorned with elegant villas, are now converted into pestilential marshes; and the Campagna di Roma, that formerly contained a million of inhabitants, could not at present, of itself, afford subsistence to five hundred. Some late popes have endeavoured to improve their territories, but with little success. The discouragement of industry and agriculture seem to be interwoven with the principles of papal administration, which, by a pernicious policy, is vested in proud and lazy ecclesiastics, whose only object is to fleece the people, and retain them both

both in ſlavery and ignorance. Amidſt public poverty, however, the ſplendor and furniture of churches in the papal dominions, are beyond deſcription, and partly accounts for the wretched condition of the ſubjects; though this remark admits of exceptions even in the ſuburbs of Rome.

The revenues of the apoſtolic ſee have been variouſly eſtimated, but, according to the moſt plauſible calculation, in late times, it has amounted to eight hundred thouſand pounds, including both the territorial income and eccleſiaſtical emoluments. It muſt, however, have been greatly reduced by the ſuppreſſion of the order of Jeſuits, and ſtill more by the emancipation of France from papal juriſdiction and authority.

Modern Rome ſtands upon the Tyber, about fifteen miles from the Tuſcan ſea, and contains within its circuit a vaſt number of gardens and vineyards. Being built upon the ruins of the former city, it is ſeated about fourteen or fifteen feet higher than ancient Rome; ſo that it is difficult to diſtinguiſh the ſeven hills on which it was erected. On this account, the Tarpeian rock, anciently a terrible precipice, from the

the top of which malefactors were thrown, is not now twenty feet high. Its chief fortress is the Castle of St. Angelo, which could not, however, make any long defence, were it regularly besieged. The number of inhabitants is calculated at about a hundred and fifty thousand.

This celebrated city contains three hundred churches, filled with all that is rare in architecture, painting, and sculpture. That of St. Peter is the most astonishing, bold, and regular fabric, that ever perhaps existed in the world; and so perfect in respect not only of design, but of execution, that the most expert architects behold it with admiration. It is incrusted both within and without with marble.

The pope's palace, named the Vatican, is extremely magnificent, situated on an eminence, one of the seven hills on which the ancient city was built. It is said to contain five hundred and sixty rooms. The parts I most admired were the grand staircase, and the pope's apartment; but chiefly the Vatican library, the richest in the world, both in printed books and manuscripts.

Among the antiquities of the moſt ſtriking magnificence, are the remains of a remarkable amphitheatre, which was begun by Veſpaſian, and finiſhed by Domitian. In the building of it twelve thouſand Jewiſh captives were employed by the former of theſe emperors. In its entire ſtate, it is ſaid to have been capable of containing eighty ſeven thouſand ſpectators ſeated, and twenty thouſand ſtanding. The architecture of this amphitheatre is remarkably light, and its dimenſions ſo juſtly proportioned, that it appears to the eye much leſs than it really is. But it has been ſtripped of all its magnificent pillars and ornaments by different ravagers: the Goths, and other barbarians, began its deſtruction, and thoſe who ought to have been the guardians of ancient relics, popes and cardinals, have contributed to efface it. The triumphal arches of Veſpaſian, Septimius Severus, and Conſtantine the Great, are ſtill ſtanding though decayed. The ruins of baths, palaces, and temples, correſpond to the higheſt ideas we can form of the Roman grandeur. The Pantheon, now converted into a modern church, and which, from its circular figure,

is commonly called the rotundo, is more entire than any other Roman temple at present existing. There still remain several of the niches, which anciently contained statues of the heathen deities. The outside of the edifice is of Tivoli free-stone, and within it is encrusted with marble. The roof of this celebrated structure is a round dome, without pillars, the diameter of which is a hundred and forty-four feet; and though lighted only by an aperture in the centre of the dome, a spectator finds no inconvenience from the want of windows. The pavement consists of large square stones and porphyry, sloping round towards the centre, where the rain water falling down through the aperture abovementioned, is conveyed away by a proper drain, covered with a stone full of holes. The colonnade in the front, which consists of sixteen columns of granite, three feet high, exclusive of the pedestals and capitals, each cut out of a single block, and which are of the Corinthian order, can hardly be viewed without astonishment. The entrance of the building is adorned with columns forty-eight feet high, and the architrave is form-

ed of a ſingle piece of granite. On the left hand, on entering the portico, is a large antique vaſe, of Numidian marble ; and in the area in the front, is a fountain, with an antique baſon of porphyry.

The priſon, which was built by Tullus Hoſtilius, and afterwards enlarged by Ancus Martius, yet remains, under the name of Il Carcera Mamentino. The moſt ancient part of it is a dungeon, to which the deſcent is by a few ſteps. The walls are exceedingly ſolid, and are made to ſlope inwards pyramidically, while the roof is left nearly flat, in order to counterbalance the lateral preſſure. In this priſon they ſhew the mark of St. Peter's head againſt the wall, and the miraculous fountain which ſprung up for the baptiſm of the priſoners. This is alſo the place of which Juvenal ſpeaks in his third Satire, and Salluſt in his Conſpiracy of Catiline.

The pillars of Trajan and Antonine ſtill ſtand conſpicuous in their place ; the former a hundred and ſeventy-five feet high, and the latter covered with emblematical ſculpture. The ſight of thoſe lofty columns fills the mind with agreeable emo-

 tions ;

tions; but my attention was yet more rivetted on the roſtrated column erected by Duillius, in commemoration of the firſt naval victory which the Romans gained over the Carthaginians; the ſtatue of the wolf giving ſuck to Romulus and Remus, with viſible marks of the ſtroke of lightning, mentioned by Cicero; the original braſs plates containing the laws of the twelve tables; and a thouſand other identical antiquities, ſome of them fortunately tranſmitted entire to the preſent times.

About eight or ten miles ſouth-eaſt from Rome, are ſhewn the ruins of a palace, ſaid to have been formerly the reſidence of Mæcenes; and a few miles further, at Tivoli, the villa of his favourite Horace.

The Appian, Flaminian, and Æmilian roads; the firſt, two hundred miles, the ſecond, a hundred and thirty, and the third, fifty miles in length, are in many places ſtill entire: and magnificent ruins of villas, and other ſtructures, are frequent all over Italy.

Of all the towns in the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, the moſt flouriſhing is Bologna, which is a hundred and ninety-five miles north-weſt from

from Rome, and is perhaps indebted for its prosperity to the distance of the situation. I must own, that this inference is not very conformable to common observation in respect to delegated governments; but that of the popes in most circumstances is different from every other that I know. The succession of the Roman pontiffs being not hereditary, but elective, it is more the study of each incumbent to enrich and aggrandize his own family by oppressing the people, than to transmit, to an unknown successor, the patrimony of the church in a prosperous condition. His delegates, therefore, in Rome, and the adjacent parts, being immediately under his inspection, are more strict and severe, in their exactions from the papal subjects, than those who are more remote from the capital. The government of Bologna is always entrusted to a cardinal, who is changed every three years. But if he is more indulgent to the people than other governors, it is probable that his benignity is not unrewarded by a voluntary *douceur* to himself.

The grandeur of Ferrara, Ravenna, Rimini, Urbino, Ancona, and many other cities, illuſtrious in former times, is now to be noted only in their ruins and ancient hiſtory; while Loretto, an obſcure ſpot, and unknown in the times of antiquity, has, through the ſuperſtitious influence of the Romiſh clergy, become the admiration and idol of the Catholic world. They induſtriouſly propagated a belief, that the houſe in which the Virgin Mary is ſaid to have dwelt at Nazareth, was carried thither through the air by angels; boldly affirming likewiſe, that on the arrival of the ſacred manſion, all the trees in the neighbourhood bowed with the profoundeſt reſpect. Mecca is not more the reſort of Mahometan pilgrims, than Loretto has been of the Catholic. Two hundred thouſand have been known to arrive in a year. The valuable treaſure of every kind amaſſed in this place, is inconceivable; but the prodigious depoſit has at laſt ſerved only to allure the rapacity of the French, who, by this and other depredations, have been enabled to maintain a war, not only againſt the

liberties,

liberties of the people who made thoſe vaſt donations at the ſhrine of Loretto, but even againſt the exiſtence, both temporal and eccleſiaſtical, of that papal power, which fomented the popular deluſion, and ſuperſtitious prodigality.

LETTER XXV.

WHEREVER I now direct my course, I may be said to tread on classic ground; amidst the vestiges of ancient towns, and ancient objects celebrated by the Latin poets. From Rome I proceed to the kingdom of Naples, the largest dominion in Italy, being two hundred and seventy-five miles long and about a hundred broad. The air here is hot, and the soil fertile in all the usual produce of Italy. Serpents are frequent in this climate, but the bite of them is seldom attended with any fatal effects. It was a general opinion among the ancients, that those creatures were affected by fascination. We meet with so many different kinds of this art in ancient authors, that it would be tedious to repeat them; but the kind most celebrated

celebrated is that called enchantment, or fascination by singing. The poets afford innumerable instances of this kind of magic.

Vipereo generi, & graviter spirantibus hydris,
Spargere qui somnos cantuque, manuque, solebat.
VIRG.

Ad quorum cantus, serpens oblita veneni,
Ad quorum cantus mites Jacuere cerastæ.
SIL. ITALIC.

The power of this enchantment was believed so irresistible, that serpents were made to burst, and even their heads to fly off by it.

Frigidus in pratis cantando rumpitur anguis. VIRG.

The profession of magic was in ancient times very profitable, and there could be no better method to obtain a reputation in this art, than by pretending to a supernatural influence over serpents. Two circumstances, which very much favoured this imposture, were, that they supposed the serpents whose poison was most virulent, to be

ſometimes above the power of enchantment. And if they ſhewed no ſigns of being affected by ſinging, it was concluded that they had ſhut their ears. The power of producing any ſurpriſing effect from a natural cauſe, diſcovered perhaps by accident, and kept ſecret from the people, was ſufficient, with the addition of a few myſterious words or ceremonies, to paſs for preternatural endowments. It would however be too bold to deny, that ſerpents can in ſome degree be charmed by muſic; ſuch a ſenſibility being often obſerved in other animals. And Mr. Shaw tells us of ſeveral *worals*, a ſpecies of lizard, which he had ſeen dance to muſic. It is therefore not improbable, that many of theſe animals have been induſtriouſly tamed by thoſe who pretended to the art of enchantment, in order to delude the people. And I am of opinion, that the famous ſerpent which went from the temple of Eſculapius, in a ſhip to Rome, to cure the city of a plague, had been for ſome time a pupil of the prieſts of that deity. Nor ſhall I ever believe that the ſerpents, which the Bacchanalians twiſted round their hair,

and

and threw upon each other's breaſt, for the admiration of the multitude, were any other than the moſt harmleſs of the kind; tho' Horace, in his Odes to Bacchus, would inſinuate to the contrary.

I have been led into this ſhort digreſſion by two cauſes: one is, the country through which I am paſſing, is that of the Marſi, who were famous for their power over ſerpents; and the other, that one of horſes was bitten by a ſerpent, which happened to croſs the road in our journey.

Naples, the capital of this kingdom, ſtands on an eminence, riſing gradually from the ſea, which forms here a fine bay, thirty miles in diameter. This city is aſtoniſhingly ſuperb, and adorned with all the profuſion of art and riches. The houſes are in general five or ſix ſtories in height, and flat at the top, on which are placed numbers of flower vaſes, or fruit-trees in boxes of earth, producing a very pleaſing effect. Some of the ſtreets are remarkably handſome, particularly thoſe which lie open to the bay. In this city you will find the rich-

eſt

eſt and moſt commodious convents in Europe; and the moſt fertile and beautiful hills in the neighbourhood are covered with them. Upon the bay at this place ſtood one of Cicero's villas; and ſome ruins yet to be ſeen are ſaid to be the veſtiges of it.

The dignified clergy and nobility of this kingdom are very numerous. In the catalogue of the former, we meet with no leſs than twenty-five archbiſhops, and a hundred and twenty-five biſhops; and in that of the latter, about three hundred princes, dukes, marquiſſes, and earls. A great part of this claſs is compoſed of Genoeſe, and other foreigners, who have purchaſed titles in the kingdom. It is computed that one-third of the dominions of Naples belongs to the clergy, and the remainder to the crown, the nobility and gentry reſpectively. Every lord or gentleman who is proprietor of an eſtate, is ſovereign of the people who live upon it, and may be ſaid to have the abſolute diſpoſal of all their effects. While they plough his lands, and plant his vineyards and olive-yards, they are hardly allowed proviſions ſufficient for enabling them to undergo the toil; and the more to encreaſe

their

their dependence, they are amenable to the courts of their reſpective lords, in every caſe that is not capital. The conſequence of this great oppreſſion is, that though the country abounds in ſilks, the manufacture is very inconſiderable. They ſend moſt of it abroad unwrought, and that in ſuch a manner as is highly diſadvantageous to the traffic of the nation. For having few ſhips of their own, as well as being deſtitute of the ſpirit of commerce, the proprietors of the lands ſell the produce of their eſtates to foreigners, who uſually export them in veſſels belonging to their own country.

The king's ordinary revenues are computed at a million a year, ariſing from a compoſition with the nobility and gentry for certain ſums, in lieu of their perſonal ſervices, from a duty on houſes, and an almoſt general exciſe. The crown alſo claims a power of laying additional taxes on the landed intereſt, according to the neceſſities of the ſtate. The clergy are ſubject to no impoſts, but grant a free gift, which however is for the moſt part, proportionable to the taxes on the laity.

About

About ſix miles eaſt of Naples, ſtands Mount Veſuvius, in awful grandeur. Its declivity towards the ſea is every where planted with vines and fruit-trees, and it is equally fertile towards the bottom; but within a mile and a half of the top, it is covered with black cinders and ſtones. Veſuvius has been a volcano beyond the reach of hiſtory or tradition. Long before the firſt recorded epoch of its irruption, it was deſcribed by authors as bearing the marks of fire on its ſummit. A moſt animated deſcription of its ravages in 79, is left us by the younger Pliny. From that time it now and then burſt out, and alarmed the neighbouring country; but ſeemed by degrees to loſe its vigor, till in the lower ages it ſcarcely gave ſufficient alarm to merit a place in the chronicles of the times. In 1631, it broke out again with accumulated fury, and ſpread ſuch devaſtation around, as almoſt equalled the firſt-mentioned. Since that time, it has had its periods of turbulence and repoſe; and of late years it has ſo encreaſed its violence, as to emit ſmoke continually, and every year,

at

at leaſt, a torrent of lava. It is probable, however, that with all its terrors, Veſuvius, open and active, is leſs hoſtile to Naples, than it would be, if its eruptions were to ceaſe, and its fury confined to its bowels.

It is computed that about two thirds of the property of this kingdom is in the hands of the eccleſiaſtics ; a ſtrong temptation to his Neapolitan Majeſty to reduce theſe emoluments. The nobility here are very numerous, but generally very poor. They are nevertheleſs extremely fond of ſhew and ſplendor, which they endeavour to diſplay in the richneſs of their dreſs, the brilliancy of their equipages, and the number of their attendants.

Between Naples and Mount Veſuvius ſtood the ancient city of Herculaneum, which was overwhelmed by a torrent of lava from that mountain, in the firſt year of the emperor Titus Veſpaſian.

The preciſe ſituation of this ſubterraneous city was not known till the year 1713, when it was accidentally diſcovered by ſome labourers. Little progreſs was made in the

excavations

excavations till Charles, infant of Spain, aſcended the Neapolitan throne. By his unwearied efforts and liberality, a very conſiderable part of Herculaneum has been explored, and ſuch treaſures of antiquity drawn out, as form perhaps the moſt curious muſeums in the world. It being ſo arduous a taſk to attempt the removing of the covering, the king contented himſelf with cutting galleries to the principal buildings, and cauſing the extent of one or two of them to be cleared. Of theſe the moſt conſiderable is the theatre. On a baluſtrade, which divided the orcheſtra from the ſtage, was found a row of ſtatues, and on each ſide of the pulpitum, the equeſtrian figure of a perſon of the Nonia family.

Since the king of Spain left Naples, the digging has been continued, but with leſs ſpirit and expenditure than before. Indeed the number of curioſities already collected is ſo great, that a relaxation of zeal and activity becomes excuſable.

This muſeum contains not only ſtatues, buſts, altars, inſcriptions, and other ornamental appendages of opulence and luxury, but alſo an entire aſſortment of the domeſ-

tic,

tic, musical, and chirurgical instruments, used by the ancients; tripods of elegant form and exquisite workmanship, lamps in endless variety, vases and basons of great dimensions, chandeliers of the most beautiful shapes, pateras, and other appurtenances of sacrifice, mirrors of polished metal, coloured glass so hard, clear, and well stained, as to appear emeralds, sapphires, and other precious stones; a kitchen completely fitted up with copper pans, lined with silver, kettles, cisterns for heating water, and every necessary for culinary purposes; corn, bread, fish, oil, wine, and flour; a lady's toilet, completely furnished with combs, thimbles, rings, paint, &c. The busts fill several rooms, but very few of the originals whom they were meant to delineate, are known. The floors are paved with ancient Mosaic.

A more valuable acquisition than bronzes and pictures was thought to be made, when a large parcel of manuscripts was found among the ruins. Hopes were entertained that many latent works of the classics were on the point of being restored to light; but the difficulty of unrolling the burnt parchment,

ment, of pasting the fragments on a flat surface, and of decyphering the obscure letters, have proved such obstacles, that very little progress has yet been made in the work. A priest invented the method of proceeding, but it would require the joint labours of many learned men to carry on so nice and tedious an operation with any success.

LETTER

LETTER XXVI.

A Few miles from Herculaneum is ſituated Pompeii, which likewiſe unfortunately periſhed by the ſame cataſtrophe with the preceding. The entrance of Pompeii is near the quadrangular barracks of the Roman cohorts that compoſed the garriſon. A portico runs round the court, ſupported by pillars of ſtone covered with ſtucco, and painted. The troops ſeem to have been accommodated with every convenience, and even luxury; for they had both a theatre and an amphitheatre belonging to their quarters.

The excavations have not been purſued with regularity, but carried on in different ſituations, juſt as hope or caprice actuated the minds of the engineers. The centre of the city is yet hidden under the vineyards, while the principal exertions are made near

the walls and gates. One opening diſplays ſome houſes, part of a ſtreet; and a temple of Iſis. The outward appearance of the temple is the moſt ſimple that can be imagined. The *penetrale* of the temple is a ſmall pavilion raiſed upon ſteps, under which is a vault that may have ſerved for the purpoſes of oracular impoſition.

A cavity of conſiderable extent has laid open part of a principal ſtreet, one of the city gates, a length of wall, ſome tombs, and a road without the gates. The town walls are built with large ſquares of lava in irregular courſes, and the ſtreets are paved with the ſame materials irregularly laid; the feet of horſes and the wheels of carriages have worn deep marks in the lava.

The people of this town had paid no attention to uniformity in building their houſes; for ſome project, while others retire behind the line. The ſhops have ſtone ſeats before them, and over the doors, emblems, in relievo, of the trade of the inhabitants.

The houſes are ſmall and built round courts, from which all the apartments received

ceived their light. The walls of the rooms are ſtuccoed, and painted in a moſt beautiful taſte. The apartments are ſmall and ſquare, and many had no light but through the door. In the kitchens and apartments of the ſervants, a green ſerpent is painted upon the wall, before which a lamp was kept burning. The ſame divinity was worſhipped near the road, without the walls.

Pœſtum, or Poſidonia, another ancient city in the neighbourhood, was diſcovered in the ſame manner, above thirty years ago, and has likewiſe afforded much gratification to curioſity. One experiences a melancholy kind of pleaſure in beholding ſcenes which had lain concealed from mortal ſight during almoſt ſeventeen hundred years, eſpecially when they are memorials of an extraordinary convulſion in nature; but nothing gratified my curioſity ſo much, as the celebrated objects which are cloſely interwoven with mythology. On the ſea coaſt adjoining to Naples, I looked with eagerneſs for the grotto of the Sybil, amidſt the rocks where it is deſcribed to have formerly exiſted, but I looked in vain. The cave with a hundred openings is not now to be found; and

there remain no more traces of her ſacred habitation, than of her famous predictions. Like Æneas, however, I went directly from the ſpot to the lake Avernus, now Averne, which I found in a condition far more agreeable than it was in the time of the Trojan hero.

This celebrated lake is circular, and almoſt entirely hemmed in by an amphitheatre of hills on every ſide; characteriſtic marks of a volcanic crater. The landſcape, though confined, is extremely pleaſant. The dark blue ſurface of the unruffled waters, ſaid to be three hundred and ſixty fathoms deep, ſtrongly reflect the tapering groves that cover its ſloping encloſures. Shoals of wild fowl ſwim about, and king's-fiſhers ſhoot along under the banks. A large octagon temple, in ruins, advances majeſtically to the brink. Its marble ornaments have been long ſince removed, but its form and ſize ſtill render it a noble object. It was probably dedicated to the infernal gods, to whoſe worſhip thoſe ſolemn ſcenes were formerly conſecrated. Black aged groves ſtretch their boughs over the watery abyſs, which they darkened

with

with their foliage impenetrable to the rays of light; while mephitic vapors aſcending from the hot bowels of the earth, being denied free paſſage to the upper atmoſphere, floated along the ſurface in poiſonous miſts. Theſe circumſtances produced horrors fit for ſuch gloomy deities, and ſuperſtition early ſeized this ſpot to celebrate her diſmal orgies. Here ſhe invoked the manes of departed heroes, and here ſhe offered ſacrifices to the gods of hell, and attempted to dive into the ſecrets of futurity. Poets enlarged upon the popular theme, and painted its aweful ſcenery with the ſtrongeſt colours of the art.

But a ſudden glare of light was at laſt let in upon Avernus: The axe of Agrippa brought its foreſt to the ground, and gave room for all its malignant effluvia to eſcape. The horrors of the place were immediately diſpelled, and with them the ſanctity of the lake. The virulence of the exhalations from Avernus, is deſcribed by ancient authors as very extraordinary: modern writers who know the place in a cleared ſtate only, charge thoſe accounts with exaggeration; but it is probable that they were founded in

fact:

fact: for even now the air is not of the purest kind, as appears from the complexion of the vine dressers, who have succeeded the Sybils and the Cimmerians in the possession of the temple.

At present, the Avernus abounds with tench, as the Lucrine does with eels. The change of fortune in these lakes is singular: In the splendid days of imperial Rome, the Lucrine was the chosen spot for the brilliant parties of pleasure of a voluptuous court. They are described by Seneca as the highest refinement of extravagance and luxury. A slimy bed of rushes now covers the scattered pools of this once beautiful sheet of water, while the dusky Avernus is clear and unmolested, offering a most alluring scene for similar amusements.

The Lucrine Lake, so famous amongst the Romans for its fine oysters, and other fish, lay near the shore, but almost the whole bed of it is now occupied by a mountain, which rose instantaneously in the night between the nineteeth and twentieth of September, 1538, during an earthquake, which caused a terrible devastation in the neighbourhood. The subterraneous fire

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ejected by a wide chaſm ſuch a quantity of ſtones, aſhes, ſulphur and ſand, as formed the preſent mountain; the perpendicular height of which is not leſs than four hundred rods, and the circumference three Italian miles.

Between the lake Agnano and Puzzoli, the ancient Puteoli, lies the village of Solfatara, ſo called from the vaſt quantities of ſulphur continually forced out of the cliffs by ſubterranean fires. Near it is the Grotto del Cani, remarkable for its poiſonous ſteams, and is ſo denominated, from its fatal effects on dogs which happen to enter it, if they remain there any conſiderable time.

The laſt object in the neighbourhood of Naples which I ſhall mention, is the Grotto of Pauſilippo. It pierces through the promontory of its own name, in a direct, but aſcending line from eaſt to weſt. It is cut in the tufo ſtone, is arched, and receives light from the two mouths, and ſome diagonal apertures in the roof. It is eighty-nine feet high in the moſt elevated part, not riſing in the loweſt above twenty-four; in length exactly two thouſand four hundred

and fourteen feet; in breadth twenty-two. The ſcantineſs of light here is at all times diſtreſſing; for that which is admitted thro' the openings abovementioned, and the feeble glimmerings of a lamp burning before a picture in the middle, are no ſecurity againſt the dangers of being run over, and cruſhed to pieces againſt the wall, or at leaſt hurt by the faggots which aſſes are continually bringing from the woods. Beſides this inconvenience, the duſt is intolerable in ſummer, and the nuiſance is increaſed every time that the King of Naples paſſes through, as the road is then ſtrewed with a freſh covering of ſand. It is ſurpriſing how paſſengers venture to travel along this ſubterraneous road at all hours, ſingly, or in company, without any guard, to prevent aſſaults, or ſufficient light to detect a lurking aſſaſſin. It reflects honor upon the national character of the Neapolitans, that people have ſuch ſecurity in a country ſo ill provided with officers of police.

Different opinions are entertained with reſpect to the firſt openers of this grotto. This kind of rocky ſubſtance is perforated with ſo much eaſe, and the practice of forming

ing ſubterraneous galleries ſeems to have prevailed at ſo very early a period of ſociety, that ſome authors have aſcribed the work to the giants or the Cimmerians, who were wont to make caves their place of reſidence, as well as the repoſitory of their plunder. Others affirm it to have been executed by Cocceius, an architect of the Auguſtan age; but this ſeems to be founded upon the miſconception of a paſſage in Strabo. From Seneca's expreſſions complaining of its inconvenience, it appears to have been at that time only open for foot paſſengers. Alphonſus I. widened it for carriages, and ſince his reign, it has been conſiderably heightened and levelled.

Above the eaſtern entrance, on the very brink of a precipice, a ruinous vaulted building, accompanied with a bay tree, is ſhewn as the tomb of Virgil; but there is no other authority than that of tradition, that his aſhes were depoſited in this ſepulchre.

Speaking of the neighbourhood of Naples in general, I think it the paradiſe of Italy. It has no other alloy than the apprehenſion of danger from Mount Veſuvius;

and

and Hannibal expoſed his army to more certain deſtruction, when he ſuffered the Carthaginian ardor of diſcipline to be relaxed in the voluptuous climate of Capua. But the atmoſphere of Naples appears not to have the ſame effect on the natives of the country and foreigners. In different ages, this province of Italy has given birth to men of great celebrity both in arts and arms. Cicero and C. Marius were born within the boundaries of the preſent kingdom of Naples.

To give an account of the illuſtrious writers which Italy produced in ancient times, would lead me into an extent of detail far beyond the intended limits of my epiſtolary correſpondence. I ſhould have to trace the hiſtory of Latin literature, from the time of Ennius, to its extinction on the downfall of the Roman empire. I ſhall therefore content myſelf with barely mentioning the moſt diſtinguiſhed authors who have ariſen in this country.

In proſe, the writings of Cicero, Julius Cæſar, Salluſt, Livy, and Tacitus, diſplay ſuperior excellence in different ſtyles of compoſition; while Virgil, Horace, Ovid,

and Lucretius, have disputed with the Greeks the palm of poetic celebrity. Since the revival of letters in Italy, Galileo, Toricelli, and others, have cultivated mathematics and natural philosophy with success. Strada, Father Paul, Guicciardini, Bentivoglio, and Davila, who wrote both in Latin and Italian, revived among the moderns the spirit and genius of ancient literature. But among the Italian poets, Dante, Ariosto, and Tasso, are the most distinguished; and Metastasio has acquired great fame by writing dramatic pieces set to to music. Sannazarius, Fracastorius, Bembo, Vida, and other natives of Italy, have written Latin poetry with an elegance, correctness, and spirit, which rival the compositions of antiquity. With regard to Italian painters, sculptors, architects, and musicians, they have carried their respective arts to the highest degree of perfection.

LETTER XXVII.

QUITTING the continent of Italy, I go for the iſland of Capri, anciently called Capreæ, ſituated about eighteen miles ſouth of Naples, at the entrance of the Gulf. It extends four miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and about one in breadth. Steep cliffs and maſſes of rock give it a wildneſs of appearance, which on advancing nearer, is gradually ſoftened by patches of verdure, and cluſters of white houſes. On a ridge between two rugged eminences, which form the extremities of the iſland, and near their ſhaggy ſummits, to a tremendous height, are ſeen the cupolas and buildings of the epiſcopal city; a conſiderable place, apparently, when viewed at a diſtance, but afterwards dwindles to a village. From hence there runs an ancient cauſeway,

causeway, to the eastern summit of Capri, where stupendous cliffs overhang the channel, which separates the island from Cape Campanella, anciently Promontorium Athenæum, or Minervæ. The view from this place is so extensive, grand, and beautiful, that it is impossible to behold it without emotions of surprise and rapture. At one glance, it displays a range of coast exceeding a hundred miles in length: Naples, with all its hills and swarming suburbs, backed by the towering Appennine; Vesuvius pouring forth the volumes of smoke; at its feet innumerable villages and verdant plains, contrasted with purple lavas; immediately below, Minerva's promontory advancing towards Capri, and dividing the Neapolitan bay from the semicircular bason of Selerno, at the bottom of which are seen the white ruins of Pæstum. In this part of the island stood the summer palace of Tiberius Cæsar, where he passed almost ten years, hidden from the world, and wallowing in the most brutal debaucheries. Proceeding northward through vineyards and orchards, we come to the palace of La Marina, where the same emperor had a winter

winter residence. Columns, and other fragments of architecture, scattered in the sands, remain as memorials of its splendor. The conduit that supplied the place with water still exists.

The odium attached to the memory of Tiberius proved fatal to his favourite abode; for scarcely was his death proclaimed at Rome, when the senate issued orders for the demolition of every fabric he had raised on the island, which was thence forward destined to answer the purposes of a state prison. In this island, across every break in the woods, or chasm in the hills, rows of nets are placed, to intercept flock-doves and quails, in their annual flights; and the quantity taken of each sort, especially of the latter, is almost incredible.

The islands of the Syrens, supposed to be those now called Galli, on the coast of Calabria, and which Ulysses passed with so much caution and hazard, are five in number, and have experienced great revolutions from the effects of subterranean fire. The tradition of Syrens residing hereabouts is very ancient, and universally admitted; but what they really were, divested of their

fabulous

fabulous and poetical diſguiſe, is not eaſy to diſcover. It has been conjectured, that on thoſe promontories ſome female ſovereign once dwelt, in times of which no records are exiſting. The poſt ſhe choſe for her reſidence was no doubt ſtrongly fortified, and well ſituated for her piratical ſubjects to dart out upon, and intercept all veſſels that navigated theſe ſeas in ages when it was not the practice to ſail at any conſiderable diſtance from land. Thus they may have rendered themſelves formidable to mankind by violence and martial exploits; but it is more natural, and more conſonant to the idea generally entertained of them, to veſt the power of the Syrens in the arts and corruptions of peace. Theſe iſlands bear all the marks of having been formed by ſubterranean fires.

Scylla and Charybdis, ſo much celebrated by the ancient poets, are now diveſted of all the terrors which rendered them dreadful to navigators. Scylla is ſituated near the Cape of Pelorus. Modern voyagers may glide cloſe under thoſe dreaded rocks without any apprehenſion of danger: for the water ſcarce undulates, and

no ſurf is ſeen to break at the foot of the cliff, nor bellowing heard among its dark caverns. When a tempeſt rages, however, the daſhing and roaring of the billows, as they are driven into theſe broken cavities, is truly horrible, and capable of ſtriking terror into the moſt intrepid mariner, if his veſſel drives near. A large caſtle covers the ſummit of this famous rock; and from it a row of houſes extends on both ſides in a ſlope to the beech, which is ſemicircular, planted with trees, and ſheltered by very high cliffs.

What is now ſhewn as the Charybdis of the ancients, is a kind of whirlpool in the harbour of Meſſina, where voyagers obſerve nothing more than a rippling, occaſioned by the meeting of the tide and torrents. The bottom of the ſtraits is ſhallow, and full of rocks; conſequently numberleſs points and cavities muſt occur to obſtruct and perplex the regular courſe of the current, and cauſe whirlpools that are dangerous in ſtormy weather; or even in dead calms, when veſſels may be embayed, and drawn among the ſhallows, from which they want wind to extricate themſelves. It is highly probable

ble that the ſea has worn itſelf a paſſage through the Faro much more eaſy and expanded than it was when Homer compoſed his Odyſſey, which was perhaps not many centuries after the waves had burſt through the connecting Iſthmus between Sicily and the coaſt of Reggio. Then Scylla might indeed be a tremendous rock; and the hollows under the ſea, where the waters yet foaming, and agitated by the reſiſtance they had met with at Scylla, were hurried and whirled about, muſt have been an irreſiſtible vortex, from which no ſhip could eſcape. The alternate action of ſwallowing up and vomiting the wreck, was ſimilar to that of a pool at the foot of any lofty caſcade.

I have already come upon the coaſt of Sicily, ancienly called Trinacria, from its triangular ſhape. It is the largeſt of the Italian iſlands, being about a hundred and eighty miles long, and a hundred and twelve broad. It lies in a warm, but pleaſant and healthful climate, conſtantly refreſhed by cool breezes from the ocean and mountains. It is ſeparated from Calabrian Italy only by the Strait of Meſſina,

which is not ſeven miles over in the narroweſt part. This iſland, once the granary of the world for corn, ſtill continues to ſupply Naples and other parts with that commodity; but its cultivation is now greatly diminiſhed, and conſequently its fertility. Palermo, the capital of Sicily, is computed to contain a hundred and twenty thouſand inhabitants. The two principal ſtreets, and which croſs each other, are very fine. It carries on a conſiderable trade, as alſo did Meſſina, which, before the earthquake in 1783, was a large and well-built city, containing many churches and convents, generally elegant ſtructures. Religious foundations are extremely numerous in Italy. Some parts of the iſland are remarkable for the beauty of its female inhabitants; and there are a great number of remains of antiquity in ruins.

The contrivance of Dionyſius, the tyrant of Syracuſe, for liſtening to the converſation of thoſe perſons whom he had thrown into priſon from motives of jealouſy, is celebrated by ancient hiſtorians. This famous excavation, which is eighteen feet wide, and fifty-eight high, runs into a huge rock

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in the form of a capital S: the ſides are chiſſeled very ſmooth, and the roof covered, gradually narrowing to almoſt as ſharp a point as a Gothic arch. Along this point runs a groove, or channel, which ſerved, as is ſuppoſed, to collect the ſound from the ſpeakers below, and convey them to a pipe in a ſmall cell above, where they were heard with the greateſt diſtinctneſs. But the place having been too much opened and altered, has now loſt its virtue in the interior part; though the echo at the mouth of the grotto is ſo very loud, that the tearing of a piece of paper made as great a noiſe as a ſmart blow of a cudgel on a board would have done. That it was, however, conſtructed intentionally for a liſtening place, it is impoſſible, after an attentive ſurvey of the whole, to entertain any doubt; and rings are cut out of the angles of the walls, to which, we may ſuppoſe, the more obnoxious criminals were faſtened.

The greateſt natural curioſity in this iſland is Mount Ætna, which has been a volcano beyond the records of hiſtory: Monſ. Buffon is even of opinion, that it was ſo from the creation of the world. Its

 figure

figure is circular, and, when viewed at a diſtance, appears conical. The top of it, however, is a vaſt ridge, almoſt level, having a round eminence at each extremity, and about the middle a forked hill riſing higher than the reſt, and ſurrounding the crater, from which the ſmoke aſcends. This part alone is of a dark colour, one ſheet of ſnow covering all the remainder. At the foot of this ſtupendous ridge lie gloomy vallies of prodigious depth, ſeparated from each other by many mountains; below which, moſt beautiful woods form a mighty girdle round the frozen region.

On a riſing ground, in the deſcent, about a mile from the crater, are to be ſeen the remains of a foundation of an ancient building. It is of brick, and ſeems to have been ornamented with white marble, many fragments of which are ſcattered about. It is called the Philoſopher's Tower, and is ſaid to have been inhabited by Empedocles. As the ancients uſed to ſacrifice to the celeſtial gods on the top of Ætna, it may be the ruins of a temple which ſerved for that purpoſe.

Near

Near the entrance of the woody region of Ætna, chefnut and oak trees are intermixed, but afterwards oak alone is to be feen. Some of thefe are of a prodigious fize. One of them meafures twenty eight feet in circumference. But what exceeds all other productions of the foreft, hitherto defcribed, is the celebrated chefnut-tree, called from its aftonifhing fize *Caftagno di-cento cavalli*, as fuppofing it capable of fheltering a hundred horfe under the canopy of its boughs. It ftands fingle, on a gentle rifing. This wonderful production of the vegetable kingdom confifts of a trunk, now fplit to the furface of the earth, but united into one body at a very fmall depth below. Of this trunk five divifions are formed, each of which fends forth enormous branches; and the circumference of it, at one inch above the ground, is a hundred and ninety-fix Englifh feet. Ætna has never been meafured with geometrical accuracy; but fome compute the height of it to be twelve thoufand feet.

LETTER XXVIII.

THE iſland of Sardinia, which gives a royal title to the Duke of Savoy, lies about fifty leagues weſt of Leghorn. It is about a hundred and ſixty miles long, and eighty broad. The ſoil is fruitful in corn, and wine, but the air is bad, on account of marſhes; and this iſland was therefore a place of exile for the Romans. At Cagliari, which is the capital, there is an univerſity, and an archbiſhopric; and there alſo the viceroy reſides. But it is hardly an object of any great attention in a political view; for it is thought that his Sardinian majeſty's revenues from this iſland, do not exceed five thouſand pounds ſterling. It was formerly annexed to the crown of Spain, but at the peace of Utrecht, was ceded to the emperor, and in 1719 to the houſe of Savoy.

The

The iſland of Corſica lies between Sardinia and Genoa, to which republic it was in ſubjection at the middle of the preſent century; but the oppreſſion exerciſed by the Genoeſe excited the inhabitants to revolt. The iſland was then ceded to the French, who endeavoured to continue the ſame tyrannical form of government which had been introduced by its former maſters. At length, in an aſſembly of the people, held in 1794, it was reſolved, that a tender of the crown of Corſica ſhould be made to the king of Great Britain. This was accordingly done, and the offer accepted by his majeſty, when, as you know, a viceroy was ſent out to take upon him the government of the iſland; and a military and naval force appointed for its protection. I always was of opinion that we ſhould not retain it long; for the Corſicans are an ignorant and refractory people, neither capable of diſcerning their own intereſts, nor of ſacrificing their natural turbulence to any fixed conſtitution of government. This diſpoſition was probably fomented by the intrigues of the French, which, for once, proved favorable to the intereſts of Great Britain;

Britain; as it accelerated an event which must have taken place at a future period, and saved us an annual expence, which the value of the whole island, except so far as it afforded a station for our ships, was not sufficient to compensate. The island is mountainous and woody, containing likewise many marshes. It however produces corn, wine, figs, almonds, olives, and other fruits, besides some cattle and horses. The inhabitants are said to amount to a hundred and twenty thousand.

Malta is reckoned among the Italian islands, and I was fond of seeing it on account of the singularity of its constitution. It is situated twenty leagues south of Cape Passaro in Sicily, and is of an oval figure, about twenty miles long, and twelve broad. The air is clear, but excessively hot, occasioned partly by the dryness of the soil; the [illegible]nd being composed of a white rock, co[illegible]d with a thin surface of earth. It is [illegible]er extremely productive of excellent [illegible]nd other vegetables.

[illegible] the capital, consists of three [illegible]rated by channels, which form [illegible]insulas of solid rock, rising a great

great height above the ſea, and have within them ſecure harbours, capable of receiving large fleets. No art has been wanting to improve by fortifications the natural ſtrength of the place. The ſtreets are ſpacious, and built of white ſtone hewn out of the rock.

Malta has been ſucceſſively ſubject to the Phænicians, the Carthaginians, and Romans; and was given by the emperor Charles V. to the knights of St. John of Jeruſalem, after they had loſt the iſland of Rhodes, which they had bravely defended two hundred years againſt all the force of the Turks. They now aſſumed the title of Knights of Malta, and were attacked in their new ſettlement by Solyman, the Turkiſh emperor, in 1566, but he was forced to abandon the iſland, after loſing thirty thouſand men in the attempt.

The knights of Malta originally conſiſted of eight different nations, but now only of ſeven, the Engliſh having withdrawn themſelves at the reformation. They have conſiderable poſſeſſions in the Roman Catholic countries on the Continent, and are under the government of a grand-maſter, who is elected for life. The lord-prior of the order

order was formerly accounted the prime-baron in England. The knights are in number about a thouſand: five hundred are to reſide on the iſland, and the remainder in their ſeminaries in other countries; but are bound to make a perſonal appearance when called upon. They are ſworn to defend the church, to obey their ſuperiors, and to live on the revenues of their order only. They are likewiſe under vows of celibacy and chaſtity; but it is obſerved that they keep the former much better than the latter. They wear the badge of the order, which is a golden croſs of eight points, enamelled white, pendant to a black watered ribband. On the 18th of September there is an annual proceſſion at Malta, in commemoration of the Turks having precipitately raiſed the ſiege on that day, in 1563. It is a day of great feſtivity among the knights, who not being debarred by any vow from ſacrificing to Bacchus, are the more liberal in their libations, from a hatred of the principles as well as the perſons of the Turks, againſt whom they have been conſidered as the great bulwark of the catholic nations on that ſide.

I had

I had the honor of receiving an invitation to their entertainment; and having got a hint that a poetical compliment from a British traveller would be acceptable to the knights, I wrote the following lines on the occasion.

Hail! Malta's valiant sons, a glorious band!
Fam'd for great deeds o'er earth's remotest land;
While papal states their annual tribute pay,
Albion presents you with a votive lay:
Herself a pow'r whom gen'rous passions rouse,
She loves your valor, though she hates your vows;
Hates a restraint that violates nature's laws,
And dreads the prospect of a perjur'd cause.
Long may your isle through prosp'rous years endure,
In virtue great, from Turkish rage secure;
Long may the Christian faith your zeal inspire,
And ancient glory fan the sacred fire.

There happened to be in the company a few who were acquainted with the English language; and to the others, the sentiments contained in the verses were hastily explained in French. You cannot conceive how much the knights were pleased with the compliment I had paid them. The grand-master instantly

filled a bumper of wine; a ſignal for the company at the different tables to follow his example. He then gave a toaſt, which to the diſgrace of Britiſh patriotiſm, would be excluded from the public feaſts of ſome ſocieties in London that I could name: It was, "Proſperity to Great Britain, and "may her glorious conſtitution live for "ever!" The enthuſiaſm with which it was univerſally drunk, really warmed my heart to the Knights of Malta.

I never viſited the northern iſlands in the Mediterranean, though I once had a favorable opportunity. Indeed they contain nothing which can much excite the curioſity of a voyager. The moſt conſiderable of them are Majorca and Minorca, the *Baleares* of the Romans. The former is about ſixty miles in length, and forty-five in breadth; the latter about thirty miles in length, and generally ten in breadth. They are not unfruitful, and ſome of their productions are eſteemed excellent in their kind. The principal defect in Minorca is in reſpect of water, of which, except what is ſaved from rain in ciſterns, there is little either palatable or healthy. A diſeaſe extremely

tremely frequent in this iſland is the tertian fever, or ague, which an intelligent ſurgeon, who reſided ſome time at Port Mahon, imputes to the influence of two cauſes. One is the general practice of watering the gardens too much; which, joined to their being cloſely planted with ſucculent vegetables, occaſions a copious exhalation of putrid vapours. Another cauſe is, with great probability, ſuppoſed to be the ſoft nature of a ſpecies of ſtone much uſed in building, which being eaſily penetrated by water, renders the houſes very unhealthy.

LETTER

LETTER XXIX.

FROM Italy, where I had occaſion to ſee a great transformation of goverments, ſome reduced almoſt to a ſtate of inſignificance, ſome totally ſubverted, and others apprehenſive of a ſimilar fate, I now take my paſſage over the Adriatic into Greece, a country once more celebrated for the genius of its inhabitants than Italy itſelf. But how prodigious a change! This however is no recent event. The glory of the Grecian ſtates expired with their freedom, which long ſince ſunk under the incumbent weight of the Eaſtern empire; and the people have been farther debaſed by the barbariſm of their ſubſequent maſters, the Turks. Amidſt the diſaſters of fortune, nature has laviſhed on this country a variety of peculiar bleſſings. The ſoil, though unimproved, is

is in many parts luxuriant beyond defcription; the air is falubrious, and friendly to the imagination, unlefs when it is corrupted from the neighbouring countries, or thro' the indolence and uncleannefs of the Turkifh manner of living. The feafons are here regular and pleafant, and have been celebrated from the remoteft antiquity.

The very mountains of this country, without deriving any fame from volcanos, are the moft celebrated of any in the world, and at the fame time, often the moft fruitful. Mount Athos ftands on a peninfula running into the Egean fea; and the mounts Pindus and Olympus, celebrated in Grecian fables, feparate Theffaly from Epirus. Parnaffus in Achaia, fo famous for being confecrated to the mufes, is univerfally known. Mount Hæmus is likewife often mentioned by the poets; but moft of the other mountains have changed their names; and even thofe above-mentioned have modern names impofed upon them by the Turks.

Befides the mountains above-mentioned, of which the ancients efteemed Olympus the higheft in the world, are thofe of Pelion and

and Oſſa, mentioned likewiſe ſo often by the poets, and not much inferior in height. Between the two laſt-mentioned mountains lay the celebrated plains of Tempe, repreſented by the ancients as equal in local beauty to the Elyſian Fields, and noted for producing fine grapes, with other fruits of a delicious flavour. According to the account delivered by Strabo and Ælian, this beautiful vale extended five miles in length, and in breadth near an acre and a half. On the right and left it was bounded by gentle convexities; the Peneus glided along the middle; and the ſurrounding groves were harmoniouſly vocal with the muſic of the fineſt birds. Livy, however, mentioning this celebrated place, informs us, that the Romans, in marching through it, were ſtruck with a degree of horror rather than delight: for beſides that the defile was difficult to paſs, there were ſteep rocks on each hand, down which the proſpect was apt to cauſe a dizzineſs; and the awfulneſs of the ſcene was heightened by the noiſe and depth of the interfluent Peneus.

When we conſider the various ſeas which ſurround this country, namely the Euxine,

or Black Sea; the Palus Mæotis, or Sea of Afoph; the Sea of Marmora, which feparates Europe from Afia; the Archipelago, the Ionian Sea, and the Levant, we muft acknowledge that no other country was fo well fituated for univerfal dominion as Turkey in Europe, particularly that part of it where the city of Conftantinople ftands. The Straits of the Hellefpont and Bofphorus are joined to the fea of Marmora, and are remarkable in modern as well as ancient hiftory.

The rivers moft confpicuous in this country are the Danube, the Save, the Niefter, the Nieper, and the Don; but many others have been celebrated by poets and hiftorians, which have now alfo changed their names. As to lakes in this country, they are not numerous, nor entitled to any great applaufe. The Lago di Scutari lies in Albania, and communicates with the Lago di Plave, and the Lago di Holti. The Stymphalus, fo famous for its harpies and ravenous birds, lies in the Morea; and Peneus, from its qualities, is thought to be the lake from which the Styx iffues, conceived by the ancient Greeks to be the paf-

ſage into hell. This was in Greece what Avernus was reputed in Italy.

Vegetable productions are excellent all over European Turkey, eſpecially when aſſiſted by the ſmalleſt degree of induſtry; and it produces in great abundance and perfection oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, grapes of an excellent and uncommon ſweetneſs, figs, almonds, olives, and cotton; excluſive of many drugs, not common in other parts of Europe.

Almoſt every ſpot of ground, every river, and every fountain in Greece, preſents the traveller with the ruins of a celebrated antiquity. On the Iſthmus of Corinth, the ruins of Neptune's temple, and the theatre where the Iſthmean games were celebrated, are ſtill viſible. Athens, now Setines, which contains at preſent above ten thouſand inhabitants, abounds with the moſt magnificent and celebrated antiquities in the world. Of a few of the moſt remarkable of theſe I ſhall give you a ſhort account.

Among the antiquities of this once ſuperb city, are the remains of the temple of Minerva, built of white marble, and encompaſſed with forty-ſix fluted columns of the

the Doric order, forty-two feet high, and ſeven feet and a half in circumference. The architrave is adorned with baſſo-relievos, admirably executed, repreſenting the wars of the Athenians. The Acropolis is now a fortreſs, with a thick irregular wall, ſtanding on the brink of precipices, and encloſing a large area twice as long as broad. Some portions of the ancient wall may yet be diſcovered on the outſide, and in many places it is patched with pieces of columns, and with marbles taken from the ruins; and the remains of ſome of the edifices extant in the Acropolis, cannot be beheld without admiration. It is, in particular, not eaſy to conceive a more ſtriking object than the Parthenon, though now a mere ruin. Several figures in alto-relievo are ſtill almoſt entire on the ſide next Hymettus. Their ſubject is the battle of the Centaurs and Lapithæ. On the freeze of the cell, was carved, in baſſo-relievo, the ſolemnity of a ſacrifice to Minerva; and of this a hundred and ſeventy feet are ſtanding, the greater part in good preſervation, containing a proceſſion on horſeback. On two ſtones which have fallen, are oxen led

 as

as victims. On another, fourteen feet long, are the virgins called Canephoroi, who aſſiſted at the rites, bearing on their heads the ſacred caniſters, and in their hands each a taper; with other figures, one a venerable perſon with a beard, reading in a large volume, which is partly ſupported by a boy.

The ruin of the Eritheum is of white marble, the architectural ornaments of exquiſite workmanſhip, and uncommonly curious. The columns of the front of the temple of Neptune are ſtanding, with the architrave, and alſo the ſcreen and portico of Minerva Polias, with a portion of the cell, retaining traces of the partition wall. The order is Ionic.

The Pandroſeum is a ſmall, but very particular building, of which no ſatisfactory idea can be communicated by deſcription. The entablature is ſupported by women called Caryatides.

The hill which is towards Mount Hymettus, is indented with the ſite of the theatre of Bacchus, where formerly ſtood the moſt ancient temple of that deity, and which was adorned with images of the tragic

gic and comic poets. Some ſtone-work remains at the two extremities, but the area is ploughed and produces grain.

The temple of Theſeus is of the Doric order, and in the ſtyle of its architrave greatly reſembles the Parthenon.

The ruin of the temple of Jupiter Olympias conſiſts of prodigious columns, tall and beautiful, of the Corinthian order, fluted; ſome ſingle, ſome ſupporting their architraves, with a few maſſive marbles beneath. The columns are about ſix feet in diameter, and near ſixty in height. The number without the cell was a hundred and ſixteen or twenty; ſeventeen of which were ſtanding in 1676.

On the ſouth-weſt of Athens, is a beautiful ſtructure, commonly called the Lantern of Demoſthenes. It is a ſmall round edifice of white marble, the roof of which is ſupported by ſix fluted colums of the Corinthian order, nine feet and a half high. In the ſpace between the columns are pannels of marble; the whole is covered with a cupola, carved with the reſemblance of ſcales; and on the frieze are beautifully repreſented in relievo the labours of Hercules.

Here are alſo to be ſeen the temple of the Winds; the remains of the theatre of Bacchus; the temple of Auguſtus; and the magnificent aqueduct of the emperor Adrian.

In the conſtruction of theſe various edifices, the Grecian architects were fortunate in having materials of a quality proportioned to their own tranſcendant genius; for the marble in Greece is eſteemed one of the fineſt in the world.

A variety of emotions agitated my mind while I ſurveyed the antiquities of this memorable city, the birth-place of philoſophy, and of almoſt all polite learning. My imagination attached a kind of ſanctity to the ground which had been trodden by Socrates, Plato, Ariſtotle, and Ariſtides. Had Athens retained her liberty and civilization to the preſent time, even the ruins of their houſes might ſtill have attracted the veneration of poſterity; and been preſerved with as much ſolicitude as was, by the Romans, the thatch-roofed palace of Romulus. On the banks of the celebrated Ilyſſus, a very ſmall ſtream, there remains not a veſtige of the Lyceum, ſo famous in the annals

of

of philosophy. The only memorial that I could discover, relative to literature, was a plain tomb-stone, apparently of great antiquity and said to be that of the tragic poet Æschylus. It is probable that the singular manner of his death has contributed to identify this monument. You know that he was killed by the fall of a tortoise, which an eagle dashed against his bald head, mistaking it for a stone.

The Turks here are in general more polite, social, and affable, than is common to their nation, and partake in some degree of the Greek character. The citizens of Athens are yet distinguished by a native quickness of apprehension, but which, not being duly cultivated, instead of producing genius, degenerates into cunning. They are reputed a most crafty, subtle, and acute race; and it has been jocosely affirmed, that no Jew can live among them, because he would be continually outwitted.

Provisions of every kind are here good and cheap; the frequent and severe fasts having an influence on the markets. Hares, Game, and fowl, may be purchased for little more than the value of the powder and shot.

ſhot. Oranges, lemons, and citrons, grow in the gardens: the grapes and melons are excellent, as are alſo the figs, which were celebrated of old. The wines are wholeſome, but the pitch infuſed to preſerve them, communicates a taſte which proves at firſt diſagreeable to ſtrangers. When the olives blacken, vaſt flights of pigeons, thruſhes, and other birds repair to the groves for food. Wild turkies are here not uncommon, and partridges very frequent. In winter, woodcocks likewiſe abound; deſcending, after ſnow has fallen on the mountains, into the plain, and as ſuddenly retiring. In the time of froſt, they enter the gardens of the town in great diſtreſs, rather than croſs the ſea, and are ſometimes taken with the hand. Snipes, teal, widgeon, ducks, and the like, are alſo found in great plenty.

The large horned owl, the favourite bird of Minerva, and which the ancient Athenians placed as her companion in her temple in the Acropolis, is here alſo to be ſeen. This ſpecies of bird is as ravenous as an eagle, and if preſſed by hunger, will attack lambs and hares.

Many

Many of the ancient wells yet remain all over Attica. Some are ſeen in the vineyards and gardens nearly in their priſtine ſtate. They conſiſt of a circular rim of marble, about a yard high, ſtanding on a ſquare pavement; adorned not inelegantly with wreathed flutings on the outſide; or plain, with mouldings at the top and bottom.

The olive-groves are now, as anciently, a principal ſource of the riches of Athens; and the honey of Attica continues to maintain its repute, particularly that of Hymettus. The wild beaſts which find ſhelter in the mountains greatly annoy the ſhepherds, who conſtantly guard their folds with large fierce dogs. Anciently the perſon who killed a wolf, was entitled by a law of Solon to a reward, if a female, to one drachma, or ſeven pence halfpenny; if a male, to five drachmas. Afterwards a talent, or one hundred and eighty pounds ſterling, was paid for a young wolf, and double that ſum for one full grown. The peaſant now produces the ſkin in the bazar or market, and is recompenſed by voluntary contribution.

In the eaſt part of Attica, on the lofty Promontory of Sunium, ſtood the temple of Minerva Sunias, viſible from afar on the ſea. This ſtructure was of white marble, and had the ſame proportions with the Parthenon before-mentioned, but greatly inferior in magnitude. The order is the Doric, and it appears to have been a fabric of exquiſite beauty. It had ſix columns in front. Nine columns were ſtanding on the ſouth-weſt ſide in the year 1676, and five on the oppoſite, with two antæ or pilaſters at the ſouth end, and part of the Pronaos. The number is now twelve, beſides two in front, and one of the antæ.

Ten miles ſouth-eaſt of Athens lies the field of Marathon, famous for the victory there obtained by the Athenians over the Perſians, under the command of Miltiades. This celebrated plain is long and narrow, and the ſoil reputed exceedingly fertile. The barley which it produces was anciently named Achillean, perhaps from its tallneſs; and at preſent it yields corn of the moſt luxuriant growth. The principal barrow, probably that of the gallant Athenians, mentioned by Pauſanias, ſtill towers above the level

level of the plain. It is of light fine earth, and has a buſh or two growing on it. At a ſmall diſtance northward, is a ſquare baſement of white marble, perhaps part of the trophy erected by the Athenians; but we now look in vain for the pillars on which the names were recorded.

About fifteen miles north-weſt of Athens, on the weſt bank of the Cephiſſus, near the ſea-coaſt, lie the ruins of Eleuſis, a city that contended with Athens for empire, until it was taken by Theſeus. Here ſtood the magnificent temple of Ceres, where the Eleuſinian myſteries were performed. Some marbles uncommonly maſſive, and ſome pieces of the columns remain on the ſpot. The breadth of the cell is about a hundred and fifty feet; the length, including the pronaos and portico, two hundred and ſixteen feet; and the diameter of the columns, which are fluted, ſix inches from the bottom of the ſhafts, is ſix feet and a half. The Temple had ten columns in the front, which was to the eaſt. The peribolus, or encloſure, which ſurrounded it on the north-eaſt and on the ſouth-ſide, meaſures three hundred and eighty-ſeven feet in

in length, from north to ſouth, and three hundred and twenty-eight feet in breadth from eaſt to weſt. Between the wall of the encloſure and temple, and the wall of the citadel, was a paſſage forty-two feet ſix inches wide, which led to the ſummit of a high rock at the north-weſt angle of the encloſure, on which are viſible the traces of a temple *in antis*, in length ſeventy-four feet ſix inches from north to ſouth, and in breadth fifty-four feet. It was perhaps the temple ſacred to Triptolemus. This ſpot commands a very extenſive view of the plain and bay.

At a ſmall diſtance from the north end of the encloſure is a heap of marble, conſiſting of fragments of the Doric and Ionic orders; the remains probably of the temples of Diana Propyléa, and of Neptune. Near it is the buſt of a coloſſal ſtatue of Ceres. She carries on her head a baſket, carved on the outſide with handfuls of wheat-ears, roſes, and bundles of poppies. A baſis, ſuppoſed to belong to the ſtatue, lies at a little diſtance from it, on the ſides of which is repreſented the proceſſion of Ceres, in baſſo-relievo. The proceſſion,

you

you know, was made by the Athenians in commemoration of this goddeſs rambling about the world in ſearch of her daughter Proſerpine, ſtolen by Pluto, after ſhe had lighted her torches at Mount Etna; the whole company having torches in their hands. A well, yet in the village, may be that which was called Callichorus, where the women of Eluſis were accuſtomed to dance in honour of Ceres.

Delphi, the modern Caſtri, ſtands on the ſouth-ſide of Mount Parnaſſus, about half way to the top. This celebrated place was much reſorted to by the ancients, on account of the temple of Apollo, and the dark cave whence the Pythian prieſteſs uſed to deliver her oracles ſitting upon a tripos. The mountain Parnaſſus appears with two tops, from one of which, called Kyampeia, the Delphians threw the famous Æſop. Between the two ſummits riſes a ſpring, ſuppoſed to be the fountain of Caſtalia. The deſcent is by ſome marble ſteps, and the water, from its agreeable coolneſs, is highly refreſhing to a traveller.

In the neighbourhood of Parnaſſus is Mount Helicon, likewiſe conſecrated to Apollo.

Apollo. They are both rocky hills, and are covered with ſnow during a great part of the year.

The moſt noted river in this province is the Achelous, called by Homer the prince of rivers. It riſes in Mount Pindus, and running ſouthward, diſcharges itſelf into the bay of Corinth.

Corinth ſtands in an elevated ſituation, with an eaſy deſcent towards the Gulf of Lepanto, the ancient Naupactus. Except in the bazar or market-place, the houſes are interſperſed with cypreſſes, corn-fields, and gardens of lemon and orange trees. The chief remains of antiquity are at the ſouth weſt corner of the town, where we meet with eleven columns ſupporting their architraves, of the Doric order, fluted, and wanting in height near half the common proportion to the diameter. Within them is one taller, though not entire, which probably contributed to ſuſtain the roof. They are not marble, but ſtone. This ruin is believed to be of very remote antiquity, and a portion of a fabric erected not only before the Greek city was deſtroyed, but before the Doric order had attained to maturity.

turity. Perhaps it is the Sirypheum mentioned by Strabo.

Corinth was the moſt illuſtrious of all the Greek cities, and grew to great power and riches by the commodiouſneſs of its ſituation. But imprudently inſulting the Roman ambaſſadors, it was involved in a war with that nation, under the conduct of Mummius, who took and burnt the city to the ground. In this conflagration different metals running together produced a third, which was held in great eſteem, and called *æs Corinthium*. The city was afterwards reſtored by Cæſar to its ancient ſplendor, and made a Roman colony. The preſent inhabitants are generally Chriſtians, and it is the ſee of a Greek archbiſhop. The air of Corinth is reputed to be bad in ſummer, and in autumn exceedingly unhealthy; but the adjacent country abounds with corn, wine, and oil.

The narroweſt part of the Iſthmus of Corinth is about ſix miles over, and here, on a mount called Oneius, were celebrated the Iſthmian games every five years, in honour of Neptune. The ſtadium, however, is not viſible; but ſome fragments remain of

of the ancient buildings. A few veſtiges may be traced of the wall built by the Lacedæmonians acroſs the Iſthmus from ſea to ſea, to ſecure the Peloponeſian peninſula from the incurſions of the Athenians. Attempts to unite the two gulphs by cutting acroſs the Iſthmus, were ſucceſſively made, without effect, by Demetrius, Julius Cæſar, Caligula, and Nero, and afterwards by Herodes Atticus, a private perſon.

Of the celebrated Olympia, now called Longinico, hardly any veſtige now remains; but it will ever be held in veneration for its precious æra by the chronologer and hiſtorian. Here the games were celebrated the beginning of every fifth year; a period of four years complete being called an Olympiad.

I have already mentioned Mount Athos, now commonly called Monto Santo, as lying in a peninſula which extends into the Egean Sea. It is indeed a chain of mountains, reaching the whole length of the peninſula, ſeven Turkiſh miles in length, and three in breadth; but what is properly called Athos is only a ſingle mountain. This is ſo lofty, that on the top, as the

the ancients relate, the ſun riſing was beheld four hours ſooner than by the inhabitants of the coaſt; and at the ſolſtice, its ſhadow reached into the agora or market-place of Myryna, a town in Lemnos, which iſland was diſtant eighty-ſeven miles eaſtward. There are twenty-two convents on Mount Athos, beſides a vaſt number of cells and grottos, with the habitations of no leſs than ſix thouſand monks and hermits; though the proper hermits, who live in grottos, are not above twenty. The other monks are anchorites, or ſuch as live in cells. Thoſe Greek monks, who call themſelves inhabitants of the Holy Mountain, are by no means ſlothful people; for beſides their daily religious avocations, they cultivate the olive and vineyards, and are likewiſe tradeſmen, as carpenters, maſons, taylors, &c. It is obſerved that theſe men lead a very auſtere life. They ſeldom eat animal food, and their faſts are many and ſevere. This courſe of temperance, with the healthfulneſs of the air, render longevity ſo common in this part, that many of them live above a hundred years. The ſame obſervation was made by the an-

cients: for Elian informs us, that the mountain in general, and particularly the ſummit, was accounted very healthy, and conducive to long life; whence the inhabitants were called *Macrobii*, or long-lived. We are further informed by Philoſtratus, in the Life of Apollonius, that numbers of philoſophers uſed to retire to this mountain, for the better contemplation of the heavens and of nature; and it is probable that from thoſe examples the monks were induced to build their cells.

Speaking of Mount Athos, I am reminded to make ſome mention of the animals moſt common in Greece; and have learned from my preſent excurſion, that in order to know the antiquities of a country, we ought to have a competent acquaintance with its natural hiſtory. I have always been ſurpriſed that the ancient Greek ſculptors repreſented the God Pan as having the head of a goat, which, among us, you know, is an animal of no great conſideration. But the caſe is otherwiſe in Greece. There I found that goats are the moſt valuable part of the animal creation to the inhabitants, for the nutrition

they afford both of milk and fleſh. I know not any kind of meat more delicious than a Grecian kid. It was probably, therefore, out of compliment to that deity, that they diſtinguiſhed him with ſuch a cornuted head, though to us the repreſentation appears whimſical and ludicrous. I imagine that ſome ſimilar reaſon induced the Egyptians to repreſent their god Anubis with the head of a dog.

The black cattle in Greece are of a large kind; and Theſſalian horſes are excellent both in point of beauty and ſervice. Large eagles abound in many parts of Turkey, and their feathers are held in great eſteem for arrows by the Turkiſh archers. Partridges are very plentiful, as well as all other kinds of fowls and quadrupeds.

LETTER XXX.

ON approaching Conſtantinople, the capital of Turkey in Europe, I was ſtruck with the grandeur of its ſituation, and the magnificent proſpect it enjoys. It ſtands on the European ſide of the Boſphorus, and was built upon the ruins of the ancient Byzantium, by the Roman emperor Conſtantine the Great, as a more inviting ſituation than Rome for the ſeat of empire. It became afterwards the capital of the Greek empire; and having eſcaped the deſtructive rage of the barbarous nations, it was the greateſt, as well as the moſt beautiful city in Europe, and the only one, during the Gothic ages, in which there remained any veſtige of civilization and elegance. While it remained in the poſſeſſion of the Greek emperors, it was the only mart in Europe for the

the commodities of the Eaſt Indies; and it derived great advantages from its being the rendezvous of the Cruſaders. Being then in the meridian of its glory, the European writers, in thoſe ages, ſpeak of it with aſtoniſhment; and they expreſs the ſame opinion of its comparative grandeur, as Tityrus did of Rome.

Verum hæc tantum alias inter caput extulit urbes
Quantum lenta ſolent inter viburna cupreſſi.

Conſtantinople is certainly at this day one of the fineſt cities in the world in reſpect of its ſituation and port. It is built in a triangular form, with the ſeraglio ſtanding on a part of one of the angles; whence there is a proſpect of the delightful coaſt of Aſia Minor, ſuperior to any thing I have ever ſeen. By the ſeraglio I do not mean the apartments allotted to the Grand Seignior's wives and concubines, but the whole encloſure of the Ottoman palace, which is of great extent. The wall which ſurrounds the Seraglio is thirty feet high, and is built with battlements and towers, in the ancient ſtyle of fortifications. There are in it nine gates, but only two of them

magnificent; and from one of theſe the Ottoman court takes the name of the *Porte*, or the *Sublime Porte*, in all public tranſactions and records.

The moſt regular part of the city is the Beſoſtin, encloſed with walls and gates, where the merchants have their ſhops arranged in beautiful order. In another part of the city, is the Hippodrome, an oblong ſquare of four hundred paces by a hundred and fifty, where they exerciſe on horſeback. On the oppoſite ſide of the Porte are four towns, viz. Pera, Galata, Pacha, and Tophana, which are all conſidered as a part of the ſuburbs. Pera is the reſidence of the foreign ambaſſadors, and all the Franks or ſtrangers; for none of theſe are permitted to live in the city. But no ſtranger can regret this reſtaint, as Pera is ſo much better aired than the city, where the ſtreets are generally narrow. Galata is alſo moſtly inhabited by Franks or Jews.

In the markets for live cattle, ſlaves of all ages and both ſexes are publicly ſold, who are generally Chriſtians of the Greek church. Amongſt the moſt beautiful girls thus expoſed, the Turks frequently recruit

their

their harams, employing old women to examine, whether thoſe they are inclined to purchaſe retain their virginity.

Conſtantinople abounds with antiquities; among which is the tomb of Conſtantine the Great, ſtill entire. The moſque of St. Sophia, once a Chriſtian church, is thought in ſome reſpects to exceed in grandeur of architecture St. Peter's at Rome.

By the moſt moderate computation, Conſtantinople is ſuppoſed to contain about ſix hundred thouſand inhabitants, of whom nearly three fourths are ſaid to be Greeks and Armenians, and the reſt are Jews and Turks. This city is much expoſed to fires, which often cauſe great devaſtation. One great cauſe of this calamity is the narrowneſs of the ſtreets, with the ſtructure likewiſe of the houſes, which are generally built of wood. But it is ſuſpected that theſe fires are ſometimes wilfully occaſioned by the Janizaries, who embrace the opportunity of committing depredations on the unfortunate ſufferers.

Oppoſite to the Seraglio, on the Aſian ſide, and about a mile and a half diſtant acroſs the water, is Scutari, where the

Grand Seignior has a pleaſure - houſe, adorned with a royal moſque.

The ſecond city of the Turkiſh empire in Europe, is ſituated in a fine plain on the river Mariza, about a hundred and fifty miles north-weſt of Conſtantinople. The ancient name of this city was Oreſtes; but being deſtroyed by an earthquake, it was rebuilt by the emperor Adrian, from whom it has ſince been denominated. It is about eight miles in circumference, and contains ſeveral grand moſques. The pleaſantneſs of the place occaſions it to be often viſited by the grand Seignior, who has here a Seraglio equal in beauty, though not in extent, to that of Conſtantinople. This city was taken by the Turks in 1362, and became the ſeat of their empire, before they made a conqueſt of Conſtantinople.

In their buildings the modern Greeks obſerve the ſame diſpoſition as the ancients. The men and women have ſeparate apartments, called Andronitis, and Gynæconitis; of which the latter, for the ſecurity of their wives, is always in the interior part of the building. There are no chimnies in the Greek houſes. A braſier is placed in the

the middle of the room, that thoſe who are not ſufficiently warmed at a diſtance, may more conveniently draw near it; and this utenſil, as in ancient times, is placed upon a tripod.

To defend the face from the heat and ſmoke of the braſier, it is covered with a tendour, or ſquare table; over which is a carpet, with a cloth of ſilk, more or leſs magnificent. Round this apparatus, ſofas or cuſhions are placed, for the accommodation of the company. The tendour is uſed chiefly by the ladies, while engaged at their embroidery, an employment which occupies the greater part of every day during the winter; the remainder being ſpent in receiving the viſits of their friends.

The Greek ladies, conformably to the cuſtom of the ancients, preſent their hand to be kiſſed by their daughters, their ſlaves, and other perſons who are their inferiors. The manner in which the girls ſalute thoſe of their own ſex and rank, is kiſſing the eyes, while they mutually take hold of each other's ears. This cuſtom, as we find from Theocritus, is likewiſe very ancient.

The

The Greeks have an enthuſiaſtic paſſion for black eyes; and the women ſtill continue the cuſtom of painting the eye-brows, and the hairs of the eye-lids, of a black colour, which they perform by means of a preparation of antimony and gall-nut.

At the marriages of the modern Greeks an epithalamium is ſtill performed, and the celebrated torch of Hymen continues to blaze in the proceſſion to the nuptial bed, near which it is afterwards placed, where it burns till the whole is conſumed. If by any accident it ſhould be extinguiſhed, the moſt ominous preſages would be drawn; on which account it is watched with as much care as the ſacred fire formerly by the Veſtals. Various other ceremonies attending the marriages of the ancient Greeks are likewiſe ſtill practiſed. One cuſtom, however, is peculiar to the moderns, which is, that by their religion they are enjoined continence the firſt night of marriage. This injunction was formerly eſtabliſhed in ſome other countries of Europe, and was introduced at the fourth council of Carthage, in the year 398. As the prieſts had the power

of dispensation, the custom was probably the source of great emolument to that order.

Being now upon the point of leaving the continent of Turkey in Europe, I shall present you with a few stanzas, written in my passage through that celebrated country, which I could not quit without offering some sacrifice, however inconsiderable, to the muses. From the scene where this small piece of poetry was composed, I shall give it the name of a Grecian Ode.

First Orpheus rose, a mighty bard,
Whose genius got the high reward,
To sound the vocal shell:
With which, 'tis wond'rous to declare,
He trees and stones made dance in air,
And charm'd the powers of hell!

But this strange tale, however fam'd,
Means only that he mankind tam'd,
By reason, not by rhymes;
'Twas sure a work not for a drone,
O! would to heav'n the art were known,
In these distracted times.

Next rose a bard in fame supreme,
Still gods and heroes were his theme,
On harp divinely strung:

Of

Of battles fierce, adventures rare,
And incidents without compare,
In ſtrains ſublime he ſung.

To him, by fate, the boon was giv'n,
To mix with all the gods in heav'n,
When round the nectar flow'd;
And thence, with more than mortal pow'r,
When wrapt in the exſtatic hour,
His ardent fancy glow'd.

From ſweet Ionia then there came
A ſage, whom verſe can hardly name,
But to the muſes known:
O'er ſea and land, he hi'd to gain,
On the Olympic crowded plain,
Hiſtorical renown.

Simple and pleaſing was his ſtyle,
Nor rude, nor poliſh'd with the file
That owns the critic's laws:
Wide o'er the world his eyes he caſt,
And various deeds through ages paſt,
From vague tradition draws.

Now Eloquence, whom all the Nine,
With ev'ry mental pow'r combine,
To form to high renown;
Rais'd her fam'd voice amidſt the crowd,
Applauding Athens eccho'd loud,
And gave the laurel crown.

Again

Again the heav'nly Nine inſpire;
Apollo tunes the golden lyre,
To gain eternal praiſe:
Then Sappho ſoft, Alcæus ſtrong,
And Pindar rapid, pour'd along
Their rich immortal lays.

Anacreon too, a jovial wight,
Harmonious verſes would endite,
When Bacchus' raptures fir'd;
Of love and wine he conſtant ſung,
On wine and love the changes rung,
And by the grape expir'd.

'Twas then the muſe firſt trod the ſtage
With comic pow'r, and tragic rage,
That knew alike no bound:
To charm the heart with keen delight,
Or tears of tranſport to excite,
By ſympathetic wound.

One, wiſdom gaily to impart,
Pourtray'd with dext'rous ſtrokes of art,
The follies of mankind:
The other, deep in paſſion ſkill'd,
With terror rouz'd, with pity thrill'd,
And humaniz'd the mind.

While Genius thus diſplay'd her pow'rs,
In all that charms the ling'ring hours,
With pleaſures high refin'd;

Bright

Bright reaſon, with celeſtial ray,
Quick darted in effulgent day,
On the benighted mind.

Then roſe th' illuſtrious moral Sage
Whoſe name's rever'd through ev'ry age,
To whom the charge was giv'n,
By force of truth and converſe gay,
To teach mankind the arduous way
To virtue and to heav'n.

Then, too, the ſplendid arts aroſe,
The marble breathes, the canvaſs glows,
With mimic life inſpir'd:
Upheaves the column'd pile ſublime,
Deſtin'd to triumph over time,
By all the world admir'd.

Such were the arts, and heav'nly ſtrains,
Which ſpread o'er Greece's hills and plains,
In thoſe tranſcendant days,
When all Caſtalia's ſluices flow'd,
And all the fire of fancy glow'd,
With ardor for the bays.

With trees and men, in Homer's page,
Leaves ſtill to leaves, and age to age,
Succeed in endleſs ſtore:
'Tis nature's impulſe o'er this ball;
But oh! when arts and empires fall,
They fall to riſe no more.

LETTER

LETTER XXXI.

A Tour through the iſlands belonging to Turkey in Europe, is one of the moſt pleaſant excurſions which a claſſical traveller can make; and as you are converſant with ancient hiſtory, of which they form a diſtinguiſhed part, my preſent letter ſhall be devoted to a brief account of their preſent ſtate.

Negropont, the ancient Eubœa, lies on the eaſtern coaſt of Achaia, or Livadia, and is ninety miles long, by twenty-five in breadth. Here the Turkiſh gallies generally lie.

The moſt remarkable circumſtance reſpecting this iſland is the tides of the Euripus, which have baffled the inveſtigation of all natural enquirers, from Ariſtotle to the preſent time. Thoſe tides are regular from the

the laſt three days of the old moon to the eighth of the new. The ninth they become irregular, and continue ſo to the thirteenth incluſively. The fourteenth they again become regular, and obſerve ſtated periods till the one and twentieth excluſively, when they return to a variable courſe, in which they continue until the twenty-ſeventh day. When they are irregular, they flow twelve, thirteen, or fourteen times, and ebb as often in twenty-four or twenty-five hours; at which times the the water is about half an hour riſing, and three quarters of an hour falling. But when the tides are regular, they obſerve the ſame rule as the tides in the ocean. In the Euripus, however, the tide never riſes above a foot, or little more. The iſland itſelf is very fertile, producing corn, wine, fruit, and cattle in great abundance, ſo that all kinds of proviſions are extremely cheap.

Lemnos, or Italimene, lies in the northern part of the Egean ſea, or Archipelago, and is almoſt a ſquare of twenty-five miles each ſide. It likewiſe produces corn and and wine, but its principal riches ariſe from

from its mineral earth, called *Terra Lemnia*, or *Sigillata*, much uſed in medicine. It receives the latter appellation from being ſealed up by the Turks, who draw from it a conſiderable revenue.

Tonedos is ſituated oppoſite to Old Troy, and is mentioned by Virgil as the place to which the Greeks retired, and left the Trojans in a fatal ſecurity. If we give credit to his authority, it was formerly an opulent place.

Eſt in conſpectu Tenedos, notiſſima famâ
Inſula, dives opum, Priami dum regna manebant:
Nunc tantum ſinus, & ſtatio mala fide carinis.

Sciro, formerly Skyros, is ſituated about twenty miles north-eaſt of Negropont, and is eighty miles in circumference. The ſoil near the coaſt is very fertile, but further up, the country is rocky and barren, yielding only paſturage for goats. The number of inhabitants is computed at one hundred thouſand, four-fifths of whom are Greeks, and the reſt Jews, Turks, and Catholics. Their wealth conſiſts in milk, butter, wine, and ſilk, of which they make annually to the

the amount of a hundred thouſand crowns.

The maſtich in this iſland being reckoned the beſt in the world, is entirely appropriated to the uſe of the Grand Seignior's Seraglio, where the ladies chew it, in order to whiten their teeth, and render their breath more ſweet.

Partridges are here in great numbers; ſo tame, that they feed all day in the fields like poultry, and at night return to the farmer's houſe on the call of a whiſtle.

This iſland was the country of king Lycomedes, where Achilles, in the habit of a girl, was educated, and lay concealed, to prevent his going to the ſiege of Troy. It was alſo famous for the exile of Theſeus, king of Athens. Pallas, who was protectreſs of this iſland, had a temple on the ſea-coaſt, of which ſome columns yet remaining are ſuppoſed to have been a part.

Leſbos, or Mytelene is about ſixty miles long, and twenty-five broad, and contains upwards of a hundred villages; one of which, Eriſſo, is ſuppoſed to be the Eriſſus of the ancients. I ſurveyed this beautiful iſland with particular pleaſure. It is famous

mous for the number of philoſophers and poets which it has produced. Among the moſt celebrated of the natives, were Pittacus, one of the wiſe men; Sappho, the poetreſs; and Arion, who is ſaid to have charmed the dolphin with his muſic. Epicurus and Ariſtotle read lectures here. It produces corn, figs, oil, and wine; the laſt of which was much admired by Ariſtotle, Horace, and Strabo.

Engina, or Engia, is ſituated in the Gulph of Engia, to which it gives name, between Achaia and the Morea. It is a fruitful country, about thirty miles in circumference, and abounds with partridges to that degree, that the people are ſummoned annually to deſtroy their eggs, for the preſervation of their corn.

On the ſummit of the mountain Panhellenius are the remains of a magnificent temple, dedicated to Jupiter, and viſited from all parts of Greece. It was of the Doric order. Twenty-one of the exterior columns are yet ſtanding, with two in the front of the Pronaos, and of the Proticum, and likewiſe five of thoſe which formed the ranges within the cell. The ſituation of this

this ruin on a lonely mountain, at a diſtance from the ſea, has preſerved it from total demolition amidſt all the changes and accidents of numerous centuries; and it has a claim to be conſidered as the moſt ancient monument of the heroic ages.

This iſland was the kingdom of Æacus, and the inhabitants were called myrmidones, or a nation of ants, from their great application to agriculture. It formerly vied with Athens for naval power, and at the ſea-fight of Salamis diſputed the palm of victory with that republic. This rivalſhip induced the Athenians to an act, that was reproachful to the humanity of a people ſo much civilized. They paſſed a decree to cut off the thumbs of all ſuch of the Æginetæ as were fit for ſea-ſervice.

Porus, another iſland in the Gulph of Engia, is eighteen miles in circumference, and remarkable only for the baniſhment of Demoſthenes, who here poiſoned himſelf, to avoid falling into the hands of Antipater.

Coluri, the ancient Salamis, is ſituated in the ſame bay, ſeven miles ſouth of Athens, and ſeparated from the Continent by a ſtrait about a mile in breadth. This

little iſland, not above ten miles long, and five or ſix broad, was the kingdom of Ajax, the ſon of Telamon, ſo famous in the hiſtory of the Trojan war. It was alſo the country of Solon, the celebrated law-giver of Athens.

Scio, or Chios, lies eighty miles weſt of Smyrna, and is about a hundred miles in circumference. This iſland, though rocky and mountainous, produces oil and excellent wine, but no corn, and is ſuppoſed to contain upwards of a hundred thouſand inhabitants; of whom only about ten thouſand are Turks, the reſt being Greeks, who have here a great number of churches. The women in this, and almoſt all the other Greek iſlands, have in all ages been celebrated for their beauty; and their perſons have been the moſt perfect models of ſymmetry to painters and ſtatuaries. Thoſe are ſtill the moſt ſtriking ornaments of Chios. They commonly ſit at their doors and windows, twiſting cotton or ſilk, or employed in ſpinning and needlework; and they are not backward in accoſting ſtrangers with familiarity. They bade us welcome as we paſſed. On Sundays and Holidays

days the ſtreets are filled with them in groups. They wear ſhort petticoats, reaching only to their knees, with white ſilk or cotton hoſe. Their head-dreſs, which is peculiar to the iſland, is a kind of turban, made of linen, extremely thin and white. Their ſlippers are chiefly yellow, with a knot of red fringe at the heel. Some wear them faſtened with a thong. Their garments of ſilk are of various colours; and their whole appearance was ſo fantaſtic and lively, as to afford us much entertainment.

The Turks inhabit a ſeparate quarter, and their women are concealed. Among the poets ſaid to be born in this iſland, the inhabitants reckon Homer, and ſhew a little ſquare houſe, which they call Homer's ſchool.

Samos lies oppoſite to Epheſus, on the coaſt of Aſia Minor, about ſeven miles from the Continent. It is thirty miles long, and fifteen broad. Beſides wine, which is in high requeſt, it produces oil, pomegranates, and ſilk. It was the native country of Juno, Samia the Sybil, and Pythagoras. The ruins of Juno's temple, and of the ancient

cient city of Samos, are the fineſt remains of antiquity in the Levant.

South-weſt of Samos lies Patmos, one of the ſmalleſt of the iſlands in the Archipelago, and extremely barren. It has, however, a commodious harbour. To this place St. John the Evangeliſt was baniſhed; and the monks who are upon the iſland ſhew a cave where he is ſuppoſed to have written the Apocalypſe.

The Cyclades iſlands lie in a cluſter round Delos, the chief of them, which is ſituated about midway between the Continents of Europe and Aſia. Delos is not more than ſix miles in circumference, but is one of the moſt celebrated of the Grecian iſlands, as being the native ſpot of Apollo and Diana. Notwithſtanding its ancient glory, however, it is now almoſt deſtitute of inhabitants; and we meet with no veſtige of the temples of either of thoſe deities.

Paros is one of the Cyclades. Like moſt of the Greek iſlands, it contains magnificent ruins of antiquity; but is chiefly celebrated for the beauty and whiteneſs of its marble, as well as for being the birth-place of the famous ſtatuaries, Phidias and Praxiteles.

iteles. From this iſland were brought the Arundelian marbles, or Parian Chronicle, which I mentioned in my letter on England.

Cerigo, or Cytherea, lies near the Morea, on the eaſt, and is between forty and fifty miles in circumference, but rocky and mountainous. It is chiefly remarkable for being the favorite reſidence of Venus, and the native country of Helen, who gave riſe to the war of Troy.

Santorin, formerly called Caliſta, and afterwards Thera, is one of the moſt ſoutherly iſlands in the Archipelago. Though ſeemingly covered with pumice ſtones, yet by the induſtry of the inhabitants, who are about ten thouſand, it produces barley and wine, with ſome wheat. Near this iſland another of the ſame name, roſe from the bottom of the ſea, in 1707. At the time of its aſcent there was an earthquake, attended with the moſt dreadful lightning and thunder, and ebullitions of the ſea for ſeveral days. When it aroſe, it was a mere volcano, but the burning ſoon ceaſed. It is elevated about two hundred feet above the ſea, and at the time of its emerging, was

about

about five miles in circumference, but it has ſince increaſed. Several other iſlands in the Archipelago appear to have had the like origin; but the ſea in their neighbourhood is ſo deep as not to be fathomed.

The famous iſland of Rhodes lies about ſeven leagues ſouth-weſt of the coaſt of Aſia Minor, being about ſixty miles long, and twenty-five broad. This iſland is healthful and pleaſant, and abounds with wine and fruit, but the inhabitants import their corn from the neighbouring countries. The chief town, which bears the ſame name, ſtands on the ſide of a hill fronting the ſea, and is three miles in circumference, interſperſed with gardens, minurets, churches, and towers. The harbour is the Grand Seignior's principal arſenal for ſhipping, and the place is eſteemed among the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes belonging to the Turks. At the mouth of the harbour of Rhodes, which was fifty fathoms wide, anciently ſtood the Coloſſus of braſs, which was deſervedly accounted one of the wonders of the world. One foot being placed on each ſide of the harbour, ſhips paſſed between its legs; and it held

in

in one hand a light-houſe for the direction of mariners. The face of the Coluſſus repreſented the ſun, to whom this image was dedicated; and its height was about a hundred and thirty-five feet. The Knights of St. John of Jeruſalem, after loſing Paleſtine, took this iſland from the Turks in 1308; but loſing it in 1522, after a brave reſiſtance, they retired to Malta.

Candia, the ancient Crete, lies almoſt equally diſtant from Europe, Aſia, and Africa. It is about two hundred miles long, and ſixty broad. This iſland was anciently renowned for its hundred cities, for its being the birth-place of Jupiter, and the ſeat of legiſlature to all Greece; but the juriſdiction of Minos and Rhadamanthus has long ſince ceaſed. About the middle of the iſland ſtands the famous Mount Ida, which is no better than a barren rock; and nothing but the luxuriant imagination of Homer ever covered it with flowers. Lethe, the river of oblivion, is a torpid ſtream. Some of the vallies, however, produce wine, fruits, and corn, all of them excellent in their kinds.

Cyprus

Cyprus lies in the Levant, about ſeven leagues from the coaſt of Syria and Paleſtine. It is a hundred aud fifty miles long, and ſeventy broad. Here is one of thoſe mountains called Olympus, but no ſprings or rivers except what the rains produce; and there was ſuch a deficiency of this reſource, during thirty years, in the reign of Conſtantine the Great, that the inhabitants were obliged to abandon the iſland for ſome time. Its natural produce. however, is ſo rich, that many European nations have conſuls and factors reſiding upon it. It affords great plenty of grapes, which yield excellent wine. Cotton alſo, of a very fine quality, is here cultivated, beſides oil, ſilk, and turpentine. The capital is Nicoſia, which lies in the middle of the iſland, and is the ſee of a Greek archbiſhop. Its ancient capital was Famaguſta, which has a good harbour. This iſland was formerly famous for the worſhip of Venus, the Cyprian goddeſs; and its female inhabitants ſeem not to have degenerated from their anceſtors as devotees to Venus. Paphos, that ancient ſeat of pleaſure and corruption, is one of the diviſions of the iſland; and in it are ſome

ſome ruins, ſuppoſed to be thoſe of the temple of Venus. During the time of the Cruſades, Cyprus was a rich and flouriſhing kingdom, inhabited by Chriſtians, but the oppreſſion of the Turks has impoveriſhed it to ſuch a degree, that the revenue they draw from it, I was well aſſured, does not amount to fifteen hundred pounds ſterling.

Of the iſlands in the Ionian ſea, the moſt conſiderable are Zante and Corfu. The former has a conſiderable trade, eſpecially in currants, grapes, and wine; the latter is the reſidence of the Governor General over all the iſlands, which are in general fruitful and lately belonged to the Venetians. Among the iſlands of ſmaller note is Iſola del Compare, which would not deſerve to be mentioned, had it not been the ancient Ithaca, the birth-place and kingdom of Ulyſſes.

LETTER XXXII.

AFTER travelling over the various kingdoms and ſtates of Europe, I now arrive in a different quarter of the world, upon the continent of Aſia; which exceeds both Europe and Africa in the extent of its territories. Whatever partiality we may entertain for Europe, as the moſt civilized part of the globe, it is certain that Aſia excells both the other quarters abovementioned, in many particulars; theſe are, the the ſerenity of its air, the fertility of its ſoil, the delicioufneſs of its fruits, the fragrancy and balſamic qualities of its plants, ſpices, and gums, the ſalubrity of its drugs, the quantity, variety, beauty, and value of its gems, the richneſs, of its metals, and the fineneſs of its ſilks and cottons

It

It was in Aſia that the all-wiſe Creator planted the garden of Eden, in which he formed the parents of the human race. Aſia became again the nurſery of the world after the deluge, when the deſcendants of Noah diſperſed their various colonies into all the other parts of the globe. It was in Aſia that God placed his once favourite people, the Hebrews, whom he enlightened by revelations delivered by the prophets, and to whom he gave the oracles of truth. It was here that the great merciful work of our redemption was accompliſhed by his divine Son; and it was thence that the light of his glorious goſpel was carried with amazing rapidity into all the known nations by his diſciples and followers. Here the firſt Chriſtian churches were founded, and the Chriſtian faith miraculouſly propagated and cheriſhed, even with the blood of innumerable martyrs. It was in Aſia that the firſt edifices were reared, and the firſt empires founded, while the other parts of the world were inhabited only by wild animals.

On all theſe accounts, this quarter claims a ſuperiority; though it muſt be owned that a great change has happened in that

part

part of it called Turkey, which has loſt much of its ancient ſplendor, and from the moſt populous and beſt cultivated ſpot in Aſia, is become a wild and uncultivated deſert. The other parts of Aſia continue much in their former condition, the ſoil being as remarkable for its fertility, as moſt of the inhabitants for their indolence, effeminacy, and luxury. This effeminacy appears to be chiefly owing to the warmth of of the climate, though in ſome meaſure heightened by cuſtom and education; and the ſeveral degrees of it are more or leſs evident, as the natious happen to be ſeated nearer to, or farther from the north. We find that the Tartars, who live nearly in the ſame latitudes with us, are as brave, hardy, and vigorous, as any European nation. What is wanting in the ſtrength of perſonal conſtitution among the Chineſe, Moguls, Indians, and all the inhabitants of the moſt ſouthern regions, is in a great meaſure compenſated by the vivacity of their minds, and ingenuity in various kinds of workmanſhip, which our moſt ſkilful mechanics have in vain endeavoured to imitate.

This

This vaſt extent of territory was ſucceſſively governed in paſt times, by the Aſſyrians, the Medes, the Perſians, and the Greeks; but the immenſe regions of India and China were little known to Alexander or the couquerors of the ancient world. Upon the decline of thoſe empires, great part of Aſia ſubmitted to the Roman arms; and afterwards, in the middle ages, the ſucceſſors of Mahomet, or, as they are uſually called Saracens, founded in Aſia, in Africa, and Europe, a more extenſive empire than that of Cyrus, Alexander, or even the Roman when in the height of its power and ſplendor. The Saracen greatneſs ended at the death of Tamerlane; when the Turks, victorious on every ſide, took poſſeſſion of the middle regions of Aſia, which they ſtill enjoy.

Beſides the countries poſſeſſed by the Turks and Ruſſians, Aſia contains at preſent three large empires, the Chineſe, the Mogul, and the Perſian, upon which the leſs extenſive kingdoms and ſovereignties of Aſia generally depend.

The prevailing government in this quarter of the world is abſolute monarchy. If

If any of them can be ſaid to enjoy ſome ſhare of liberty, it is the wandering tribes, ſuch as the Tartars and Arabs.

Turkey, Arabia, Perſia, part of Tartary, and part of India, profeſs Mahometaniſm. In the other parts of Tartary, India, China, Japan, and the Aſiatic iſlands, they are generally heathens and idolaters. Jews are to be found every where in Aſia.

Natolia, or Aſia Minor, comprehending various provinces celebrated in Greek and Roman hiſtory, is one of the moſt deſirable countries in the world, for the purity of its air, the natural fertility of the ſoil, and the beautiful proſpects it affords; but with all theſe advantages, it is now, through the Turkiſh indolence and tyranny, either forſaken, or become a theatre of ruins. The ſites of the ancient cities are ſtill diſcernible. Towards the northern extremity ſtood the celebrated city of Troy, immortalized in the poems of Homer and Virgil.

The ruins of the ancient Ilium were ſought for in vain in the time of Julius Cæſar.

——————— *tota teguntur*
Pergama dumetis: etiam periere ruinæ. LUCAN.

Of the Troja Nova, which is ſuppoſed to have been built by Alexander the Great,

or at leaſt much enlarged by him and Lyſimachus, there are ſtill ſome noble remains; but the ingenious Mr. Wood ſtrongly contends, that this place muſt be at a conſiderable diſtance from the famous Ilium. This opinion he founds upon an examination of the preſent ſtate of the Troad, compared with the topographical ſcenes, and ſome of the incidents in the Iliad. The preſent Troy, he obſerves, ſtands upon the ſea; but this is not the Troy of Homer; for that was higher up, and looked towards the Helleſpont, not towards the Ægean. He is certain that the Scamander is conſiderably changed from what it was in the days of Homer. The hot ſpring, according to the poet, was one of the ſources of this river: but it is now much lower than the preſent ſource, and has no communication with the Scamander. The fountains whence the river took its riſe were, according to Homer, cloſe by the walls of the city; but the ground about the fountain, it is obſerved by Mr. Wood, is too ſteep and rugged for the ſituation of a city. Such a ſituation, he remarks, cannot be made to accord with the purſuit of Hector, nor with many

many other incidents in the poem. The diſtance alſo of the preſent ſource from the Helleſpont is too great to admit of the actions of the day. For theſe reaſons Mr. Wood fixes the ſituation of the city lower down than the ſprings of the Scamander; and he likewiſe ventures to cut off ſome miles from our ancient map of the Trojan plain, upon a preſumption, ſupported by the natural hiſtory of the country, that a great part of the plain, which extends to the Helleſpont, has been produced ſince the time of Homer.

It is not to be queſtioned, that in the courſe of near three thouſand years, the Troad, as well as other parts on the Ionian coaſt, has undergone great alterations; but it would perhaps be precipitate to determine thoſe alterations, from the diſſimilarity between the preſent ſtate of this territory, and the repreſentation of it in Homer. Nothing is more probable, than that much of the ſcenery in the Iliad exiſted only in the poet's imagination; and that this was the caſe, there ſeems additional reaſon to conclude, from the admired epiſode at the beginning of the twelfth book, intended to ob-

viate the queſtion, why no ruins remained of the Grecian wall? This paſſage being ſo pertinent to the ſubject in controverſy, deſerves to be quoted.

"This ſtood, while Hector and Achilles rag'd,
While ſacred Troy the warring hoſts engag'd:
But when her ſons were ſlain, her city burn'd,
And what ſurviv'd of Greece to Greece return'd:
Then Neptune and Apollo ſhook the ſhore,
And Ida's ſummits pour'd their wat'ry ſtore;
Rheſus and Rhodius then unite their rills,
Careſus roaring down the ſtony hills,
Æſepus, Granicus, with mingled force,
And Xanthus, foaming from its fruitful ſource;
And gulphy Simois, rolling to the main
Helmets and ſhields, and god-like heroes ſlain:
Theſe turn'd by Phœbus from their wonted ways,
Delug'd the rampires nine continual days:
The weight of water ſaps the yielding wall,
And to the ſea the floating bulwarks fall.
Inceſſant cataracts the thund'rer pours,
And half the ſkies deſcend in ſluicy ſhow'rs;
The god of ocean marching ſtern before,
With his huge trident wounds the trembling ſhore;
Vaſt ſtones and piles from their foundation heaves,
And whelms the ſmoaky ruin in the waves.
Now ſmooth'd by ſand, and levell'd by the flood,
No fragment tells where once the ruin ſtood.

But

But whatever increaſe or change the plain may have received ſince the ſiege of Troy, the adjacent mountains could not eaſily be affected by the cauſe of any ſuch alteration. We therefore find that Mount Gargarus, Cotylus, and Lectum, have only changed their names, and continue to make the ſame conſpicuous figure, which diſtinguiſhed them in the Iliad. The deſcription given by Homer of Mount Ida likewiſe correſponds with its preſent ſtate; for its numerous ſummits are ſtill covered with pine-trees, and it abounds with fountains.

Monſ. Chevalier, a Frenchman, publiſhed a few years ago an intereſting account of the Troad, in which he contends that the preſent ſituation of the Plain of Troy correſponds exactly with the deſcription of it in the Iliad. It is ſtill diverſified by a few barrows; and into the largeſt of theſe, which he conjectured to be that of Achilles, Monſ. Chevalier informs us that he made an opening. He affirms that he found in this repoſitory the identical urn mentioned by Homer, which Achilles received of his mother Thetis, and deſtined to contain his own aſhes, with thoſe of his

 friend

friend Patroclus. But I wiſh, that for the ſatisfaction of the public, Mr. Chevalier, in order to corroborate his own teſtimony, had procured the attendance of ſome reſpectable gentlemen from Conſtantinople, to be witneſſes of the diſcovery. He doubtleſs might have formed a party for that purpoſe among the foreign ambaſſadors at the Porte, who would have made ſo ſhort an excurſion with pleaſure, to gratify antiquarian curioſity.

According to Mr. Wood's computation, the ancient kingdom of Priam includes in its circumference about five hundred Engliſh miles. Of this above two hundred are a maritime tract, waſhed by the Propontis, Helleſpont, and Ægean Seas. Few ſpots of equal extent enjoy more natural advantages. The climate is temperate and healthful; the hills are covered with woods, and the plains, which are fertile, well watered. The country produces oil; and in ancient times ſome parts of it were famous for wine. There are mineral waters and hot baths, which the natives uſe for ſeveral diſorders; and the mountains contain mines, which

which probably might be wrought to advantage.

In this quarter of Aſia Minor, lies Lydia, or Meonia, the kingdom of the celebrated Crœſus. The capital city, Sardis, was ſituated on the river Pactolus, about ſeventy miles eaſt of Smyrna. It was once the fineſt city in Aſia Minor, and one of the ſeven churches mentioned in Scripture; but being demoliſhed by an earthquake, is now in ruins. The ſite of it, which at preſent is named Sart, is green and flowery. Coming from the eaſt, we have the ground-plot of the theatre on our left hand, with a ſmall brook running before it. This ſtructure was in a brow, which unites with the hill of the Acropolis. Some pieces of the vault, which ſupported ſeats, and completed the ſemicircle, remain. Going on we paſs by remnants of maſſy buildings; marble pieces ſuſtaining heavy fragments of arches of brick; and more indiſtinct ruins. Theſe are in the plain before the hill of the Acropolis. On the right-hand near the road, is a portion of a large edifice. The walls are ſtanding of two large, lofty, and very long rooms, with a ſpace between them, as of a paſſage.

paſſage. This is conjectured to have been part of the houſe of Crœſus. The walls in this ruin have double arches beneath, and conſiſt chiefly of brick, with ſome layers of ſtone The bricks are extremely fine and good, of various ſizes, ſome flat and broad, and were united with a cement ſo tenacious, that it is ſaid to be unſuſceptible of decay.

Not far from the weſt end is the celebrated river Pactolus, which riſes in Mount Tmolus, and once flowed through the middle of the Agora, or market-place of Sardis, in its way to the Hermus, bringing down from the mountain bits of gold. The treaſures of Crœſus and his anceſtors were collected chiefly from the river, but in time the ſource failed. The Pactolus, after ſnow or rain, ruſhes down in a torrent; but at other times the ſtream is ſhallow. The bed is ſandy, in colour inclining to a reddiſh yellow.

In aſcending the Acropolis, we are ſuddenly ſtruck with a view of the ruin of a temple, in a retired ſituation, beyond the Pactolus. Five columns are ſtanding, one without the capital, and another with the capital awry. It is conjectured that this was the

the temple dedicated to the local goddeſs Cybebe, or Cybele, and which was damaged in the conflagration of Sardis by the Mileſians. It was of the Ionic order, and had eight columns in front. The ſhafts are fluted, and the capitals deſigned and carved with exquiſite taſte and ſkill. It is impoſſible to behold, without deep regret, this imperfect remnant of ſo beautiful and glorious an edifice.

Before Sardis, on the oppoſite ſide of the plain, are many barrows on an eminence. Near the lake Gygœa, five miles from Sardis, was the burying-place of the Lydian kings; and here the barrows are of various ſizes. Four or five are diſtinguiſhed by their ſuperior magnitude. All of them are covered with green turf, and retain their conical form. One of theſe barrows is inferior only to the work of the Egyptians and Babylonians. It was the monument of Halyartes, the father of Crœſus.

Not far from thence is Mount Sipylus, to a phænomenon extant in which, the fable of the transformation of Niobe, the daughter of Tantalus, is indebted for its origin. This phænomenon is found to be the effect

of

of a certain portion of light and ſhade on a part of Sipylus, perceivable at a particular point of view.

Other towns in this province are the ancient Philadelphia, Thyatira, and Laodicea, each of them one of the ſeven churches mentioned by the apoſtle St. John. The latter was conſiderable for trade in the time of Cicero, but is now in ruins. The firſt ruin which preſents itſelf is of an amphitheatre, in a hollow, the form oblong, and the area about a thouſand feet in extent, with many ſeats remaining. At the weſt end is a wide vaulted paſſage, deſigned for the horſes and chariots, about a hundred and forty feet long. The entrance from without is choaked up, except a ſmall aperture, at which a glimmering light enters; and the ſoil has riſen above the impoſts of the interior arch.

On the north ſide of the amphitheatre, towards the eaſt end, is the ruin of a large edifice. It conſiſts of many piers and arches of ſtone, with pedeſtals and marble fragments. This fabric was perhaps the repoſitory of the laws, and included the ſenate-houſe, and public offices.

From

From this ruin may be ſeen the Odéum, which fronted the ſouth: the ſeats remain on the ſide of the hill. The proſcenium lies in a confuſed heap: the whole was of marble. Sculpture had been laviſhed on it, and the ſtyle ſavoured leſs of Grecian taſte than Roman magnificence.

On the bank of the Mæander we diſcover the ruin of an ancient bridge, conſiſting of half the central arch, with one ſmaller arch entire; and we may obſerve ſome ſtones and veſtiges of a building, which is ſuppoſed to have been a temple of Menes, called Carour; a deity that was worſhiped in a peculiar manner. The temple was between Caroura and Laodicea, and had once been a great ſeminary of phyſicians.

The river Mæander, which makes ſo many windings in this country, was anciently noted for the production of new land, occaſioned by its paſſing through the ploughed grounds of Phrygia and Caria; whence collecting much ſlime, it added to the coaſt at its mouth. The Mæander was indictable for removing the ſoil, when its margin tumbled in; and the perſon who recovered

recovered damages was paid from the produce of the ferries. Thofe downfalls of the banks were very frequent, and are fuppofed to be the caufe of the windings fo remarkable in the channel of this river. From the alterations already effected at the mouth of the Mæander, there is reafon to believe, that in a feries of years the fhore will protrude far into the fea, and perhaps unite the iflands which at prefent lie at a diftance.

To the fouthward of this diftrict ftood Miletus, a city of great antiquity, faid to have been built by Miletus, the companion of Bacchus. This once flourifhing emporium is now a very mean place, but ftill called Palat or Palatia, *the Palaces*. The chief relic of its former magnificence is a ruined theatre, which is vifible afar off, and was a moft capacious edifice, meafuring in length four hundred and fifty-feven feet. The external face of this vaft fabric is marble. The profcenium or front has been removed. The feats ranged, as ufual, on the flope of a hill, and a few of them remain. The vaults which fupported the extremities, with the arches or avenues in the

the two wings, are conſtructed with great ſolidity.

The veſtiges of the ancient city are pieces of wall, broken arches, and a few ſcattered pedeſtals, with inſcriptions, a ſquare marble urn, and ſeveral fountains. This was the country of Thales, one of the ſeven wiſe men; of Anaximander, his ſcholar and ſucceſſor, the inventor of ſun-dials; of Anaximenes, the philoſopher; Timotheus, the celebrated muſician, and other eminent perſons. Among the numerous trophies of this ancient city, it was famous for its wool.

—————— *quamvis Mileſia magno*
Vellera mutantur, Tyrios incocta rubores.

Myndus is a port town on a bay of the ſea, in a part of the diviſion called Doris. This is the city which Diogenes the cynic obſerving to be very ſmall, and the gates diſproportionally large, called to the inhabitants to ſhut their gates, to prevent the eſcape of the town.

Priene was ſituated on the ſide of mount Mycale, near which the Ionians celebrated the Panionia, or yearly aſſemblies in honor of Heliconian Neptune. It was alſo the country of Bias, one of the ſeven wiſe men;

men; who, when the place was taken by the enemy, and the citizens were flying with their moſt valuable effects, being aſked why he did not do as they did? replied, he always carried his beſt effects with him, meaning his philoſophy and wiſdom. Being a man of the ſtricteſt equity, *Juſtitia Prienenſis* became proverbial.

This city was famous for the temple of Minerva Polias, the remains of which yet evince its former elegance and grandeur. When entire it overlooked the city, which was ſeated on the ſide of the mountain, flat beneath flat, in gradation, to the edge of the plain. The areas are levelled, and the communication preſerved by ſteps cut in the ſlopes. Below the temple are broken columns, and pieces of marble, the remains of edifices of the Ionic and Doric orders. Further down is the ground-plot of the Stadium, by the city wall. The area was narrow, and the ſeats ranged only on the ſide facing the plain. The whole circuit of the wall of the city is ſtanding, beſides ſeveral portions within it of admirable ſolidity and beauty.

At

At Ure, about twenty-two miles from Miletus, is the celebrated temple of Apollo Didyméus. It is approached by a gentle aſcent, and ſeen afar off, the land towards the ſea lying flat and level. The columns, yet entire, are ſo exquiſitely fine, and the marble maſs ſo vaſt and noble, that it is impoſſible perhaps to conceive greater beauty and majeſty of ruin.

Halicarnaſſus, once a flouriſhing city, is now nothing more than a heap of ruins. No veſtige remains of the tomb erected by Artemiſia for her huſband Mauſoleus, though formerly eſteemed one of the ſeven wonders. Of this city was Herodotus, called by Cicero *The Father of Hiſtory*; and likewiſe Dionyſius, not only a good hiſtorian but a critic.

Ionia and Eolis form in conjunction a long tract of land, extending from ſouth to north, upon the coaſt of the Archipelago. In this territory was ſituated Epheſus, the moſt illuſtrious city of Ionia, and called by Pliny the bright ornament of Aſia. Here ſtood the celebrated temple of Diana, which Eroſtratus burnt to perpetuate his memory, the ſame night that Alexander was

was born. Many grand ruins are yet to be ſeen of the Stadiúm Theatre, Odéum, and other buildings; and ſome of them ſuppoſed to be the remains of Diana's temple, there having been a ſecond erected to the honour of that goddeſs, not inferior to the former. The Epheſians are now a few Greek peaſants, living in extreme wretchedneſs and inſenſibility; the repreſentatives of an illuſtrious people, and inhabiting the wreck of their greatneſs; ſome the ſubſtructions of the glorious edifices which they raiſed; ſome beneath the vaults of the Stadium, once the crowded ſcene of their diverſions; and ſome, by the abrupt precipice, in the ſepulchres which received their aſhes. Of this place was Heraclitus the weeping philoſopher, Hipponax the poet, and Parrhaſius the celebrated painter.

On the banks of the Cayſter, near Epheſus, are thick groves of tall reeds, ſome of which are more than twenty feet high. This extraordinary luxuriance is perhaps the reaſon why the river-god is repreſented on the Epheſian medals with this aquatic, as one of his attributes.

Myûs was originally ſeated on a bay of the ſea, but the bay being changed into a lake, became freſh; and the town was ſo much infeſted with gnats, which ſwarmed from the water, that the inhabitants retired to Miletus. The ſite of Myûs is as romantic as its fortune was extraordinary; and there are here many remnants of antiquity to attract the attention. The city-wall, which was conſtructed with ſquare towers, like that of Epheſus, is ſtill ſtanding, except on the ſide towards the water. We behold the theatre hewn in a branch of Mount Titanus, with ſome maſſy remnants of the wall of the Próſcenium; but the marble ſeats are removed. The principal ruin is the ſmall temple of Bacchus. It is ſeated on an abrupt rock, with the front only, which is towards the eaſt, acceſſible. The roof is deſtroyed. The cell is well built of ſmooth ſtone covered with a brown cruſt. The marbles which lie ſcattered about, the broken columns, and mutilated ſtatues, all witneſs a remote antiquity.

Without the city are the cemetaries of its early inhabitants; graves cut in the rock,

 ſuited

fuited to the human ftature at all ages; with innumerable flat ftones, which ferved as lids. The city of Myûs was allotted to Themiftocles, by Artaxerxes, to furnifh his table with fifh, in which the lake greatly abounds.

At the head of the lake are veftiges of an ancient building, fuppofed to have been Thymbria. By it was a charonium or facred cave; one of thofe which the ancients imagined to communicate with the infernal regions.

At Zellé, the ancient Claros, fome ruins are to be feen, fuppofed to be of the temple of Apollo, who had an oracle at this place; but there exifts no memorial of the facred grove of afh-trees. In the neighbourhood of Claros ftood Colophon, one of the cities which laid claim to the birth of Homer.

Teos, now called Bodrun, is at prefent almoft entirely defolate. The walls appear to have been about five miles in circuit; without which are vaults of fepulchres ftripped of their marble. Here are the remains of a temple of Bacchus, one of the moft celebrated ftructures in Ionia; and a theatre is confpicuous in the fide of the hill.

This

This was the country of Anacreon the poet, Hecatæus the hiſtorian, and Protagoras the philoſopher. The books of the latter, as containing atheiſtical doctrines, were burnt by order of the Athenians; and his father Menander was ſo opulent as to entertain Xerxes and his numerous attendants on his march againſt Greece.

Erythræ has long been deſerted, and even ſtripped of its ruins, except ſome vaults of ſepulchres, and other fragments.

The walls of Erythræ were erected on two ſemicircular rocky brows, and had ſquare towers at regular diſtances. In the middle was a ſhallow purling ſtream, clear as chryſtal, which now turns a ſolitary mill in its way to the ſea. This rivulet was anciently named Alcos, and was remarkable for producing hair on the bodies of thoſe who drank of it. Near the mouth is a piece of ordinary Moſaic pavement. By a conical hill on the north, are veſtiges of an ample theatre in the mountain ſide. Of the celebrated temple of Hercules no traces now remain.

Lampſacus is ſituated on the ſouthern ſhore of the Propontis, and retains its an-

cient name. It was aſſigned by Artaxerxes to Themiſtocles, for furniſhing his table with wine, in which the country abounded. Alexander having threatened this city with ruin, for the favor it had ſhewn to the Perſians, it was ſaved by the addreſs of Anaximenes the hiſtorian, who was ſent by his fellow citizens to deprecate the king's diſpleaſure. The latter being informed of the deſign, ſolemnly declared he would do the very reverſe of Anaximenes's requeſt; who therefore, on his arrival, begged the king utterly to deſtroy Lampſacus; which he could not do on account of his oath.

Smyrna, now called Iſmir, is a conſiderable city, and has the largeſt and moſt commodious harbour in the Levant. The city is about four miles in circumference, and contains ſeveral thouſand inhabitants, among whom there is a number of Greeks, Jews, and Armenians. The neighbourhood of Smyrna is exceedingly pleaſant, on account of the gardens and vineyards, olives and orange-groves, with which it is ſurrounded; and through theſe runs the river Melus, on the banks of which, according to the tradition of the place, the

poet

poet Homer was born. Many valuable antiquities are ſtill to be ſeen in the environs of Smyrna; but the plague, with which it is ſo often viſited, beginning to make its appearance, I was induced to quit Smyrna ſooner than I intended.

At this time I had occaſion to obſerve the fatal prejudice of the Turks with reſpect to predeſtination. I took the liberty, by means of an interpreter, to ſuggeſt to them the propriety of having recourſe to medical aſſiſtance, againſt the ravages of that terrible diſeaſe; but a ſhrug of the ſhoulder, or a ſhake of the head, was all that my remonſtrance could produce. They are firmly perſuaded that a preciſe time is fixed for the death of every perſon; and that it is in vain to endeavour to protract this period by any medicinal application.

LETTER XXXIII.

PROCEEDING ſouthward from Aſia Minor, I came to Syria, and Paleſtine, or Judea, now prodigiouſly altered from its former ſtate. The Turks are particularly fond of repreſenting this country in the moſt dreadful colours, and have even propagated a thouſand falſehoods concerning it. But it is admitted by all impartial men who have viſited the country, that were the Holy Land as well cultivated as in former times, it would be more fertile than the very beſt parts of Syria and Phœnicia. Its preſent barrenneſs does not proceed from the natural unfruitfulneſs of the ſoil, but from the want of inhabitants, the indolence which prevails among the few who poſſeſs it, and the perpetual diſcords and depredations of the petty princes who ſhare amongſt them this

this fine country. It is a well-attested fact, that in this country the husbandman when sowing, is often accompanied by an armed friend, to prevent his being robbed of the seed; and after all, it is uncertain whether he shall ever reap the harvest. Under such extreme discouragement, it cannot appear surprising that it should be neglected.

There are still in this country many cities, but greatly decayed from their ancient grandeur, and have little or no trade. Scandaroon stands upon the site of Old Alexandretta, but is now almost depopulated. In its neigbourhood are superb remains of antiquity. Aleppo preserves a respectable rank among the cities of Asiatic Turkey. It continues to be the capital of Syria, and is superior in its buildings and conveniences to most of the Turkish cities. Its houses, as usual in the East, consist of a large court, with a dead wall to the street, an arcade or piazza running round it, paved with marble, and in the middle an elegant fountain of the same. Aleppo and its suburbs are seven miles in circumference, standing on eight small hills, on the highest of which is erected the citadel or castle,

but of no great ſtrength. Having many gardens within the wall, it is furniſhed with moſt of the conveniences of life, excepting good water, and even that is ſupplied by an aqueduct, four miles in extent, and ſaid to have been erected by the empreſs Helena. The city contains ſome magnificent moſques and bagnios. The Engliſh, French, and Dutch have conſuls here. The firſt of them is treated with particular diſtinction; and at his houſe I had the pleaſure of reſiding during my ſhort ſtay at Aleppo.

The city of Jeruſalem has been ſo often razed to the ground, and rebuilt anew, that no ſcene of Our Saviour's life and ſufferings can now be aſcertained; yet the Greek and Arminian prieſts in that quarter, who ſubſiſt by the credulity of ſtrangers, pretend to guide travellers to every ſpot mentioned in the Old and New Teſtament. The church of the Holy Sepulchre, as it is called, ſaid to be built by Helena, mother to Conſtantine the Great, is ſtill ſtanding, and of tolerable good architecture; but its different diviſions, and the diſpoſitions made round it, are chiefly calculated to ſupport the

the forgeries of its keepers. Other churches built by the ſame pious lady are ſcattered over Paleſtine; but the altered ſtate of the country has left no traces of the kingdom of David and Solomon, under whom it was undoubtedly rich and flouriſhing.

The ancient cities of Damaſcus, Tyre, and Sidon, ſtill retain part of their former trade. Damaſcus is now called Sham, and the approach to it by the river is inexpreſſibly beautiful. It is about two miles ſquare, and encompaſſed with gardens highly cultivated. It ſtill is famous for its ſteel-work, ſuch as ſword-blades, knives, &c. and contains a fine moſque, which was formerly a Chriſtian church. The natives maintain this place to be the ſeat of Paradiſe, and have a tradition that Adam was formed of the duſt of the neighbouring fields. Sidon, now Said, which likewiſe was within the ancient Phœnicia, has ſtill ſome trade, and a tolerable harbour. Tyre, now called Jur, about twenty miles diſtant from Sidon, which was famous anciently for its purple dye, is now inhabited by ſcarcely any but a few miſerable fiſhermen, who live in the ruins of its ancient grandeur.

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I was extremely deſirous of ſeeing Balbec, the ruins of which are ſo much celebrated. It ſtands on a riſing plain, between Tripoli in Syria and Damaſcus, at the foot of Mount Lebanon; and is the ancient Heliopolis of Syria. Here are ſtill to be ſeen the venerable remains of magnificent edifices. The portico of the temple of Heliopolis is remarkably ſuperb, though disfigured by two Turkiſh towers. Of the pillars, which were fifty-four in number, the greater part are broken. The whole length of the building is two hundred and nine feet, and about a hundred and four in breadth. It is ſurrounded by a beautiful colonnade, the pillars of which are of the Corinthian order, ſeven feet in diameter, and in height almoſt forty-four. They ſtand at the diſtance of nine feet from each other, and the ſame from the wall. The decorations of theſe pillars, together with the architrave and cornices, are extremely magnificent. The length of the inſide of the temple is a hundred and twenty feet, and the breadth about half that meaſure. All around it are two rows of pilaſters, one above another, and between them are niches,

niches, probably for the reception of idols. At ſome diſtance from the temple, is a row of large Corinthian pillars, of a greater height than thoſe in the temple; and there are ſeveral other places where ſuch pillars had ſtood, the ruins of which are now lying on the ground.

Making the circuit of the edifice on the outſide, one is aſtoniſhed to behold the prodigious ſtones which are the remains of the old wall. They are in general not under ſixty feet in length, twelve feet high, and the ſame in breadth. Theſe ſtones lie contiguous to each other in a row, at the height of twenty feet from the ground; and from the difficulty of accounting how ſuch huge bodies could be ranged there in ſuch a ſituation, the people in the neighbourhood have a tradition that they were brought thither by ſupernatural agents.

Not far from the temple, or caſtle, as it is now called, is another ancient edifice, of a round form, conſiſting of the ſame kind of ſtones as thoſe before-mentioned, and which has a ſtrong reſemblance to the temple of Janus at Rome. The pillars are

likewiſe

likewiſe of the Corinthian order, decorated with architraves and cornices of exquiſite workmanſhip.

Various have been the conjectures concerning the founders of theſe immenſe buildings. The inhabitants of the country generally aſcribe them to Solomon, but ſome to the time of Antoninus Pius. Perhaps they are of different æras; and though that prince and his ſucceſſors may have rebuilt ſome part of them, yet the boldneſs of their architecture, the beauty of their ornaments, and the admirable excellence of the whole, ſeems to fix their foundation to a period before the Chriſtian æra, but without aſcending to the ancient times of the Jews or Phœnicians, who probably knew little of the Grecian ſtyle of architecture.

Balbec is at preſent a ſmall city, encompaſſed with a wall. It contains about five thouſand inhabitants, chiefly Greeks, who live in or near the circular temple, in houſes built out of the ancient ruins. A free-ſtone quarry in the nighbourhood, furniſhed the ſtones for the body of the temple; and one

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of the ſtones, not quite detached from the bottom of the quarry, is ſeventy feet long, fourteen broad, fourteen feet five inches deep, and reduced to our meaſure, is eleven hundred and thirty-five tons. A coarſe white marble quarry, at a greater diſtance, furniſhed the ornamental parts.

Near the road leading from Balbec to Mount Lebanon, at the diſtance of a few miles from the city, ſtands a pillar of the Corinthian order, conſiſting of fifteen blocks of ſtone, placed on each other, to the height of fifty-ſeven feet, and five feet in diameter. The cauſe of its being erected is utterly unknown, there not remaining on the pedeſtal the leaſt trace of any inſcription.

Mount Lebanon is ſtill diſtinguiſhed by cedars, which are remarkable both on account of their great antiquity, and the mention made of them in Scripture. They ſeem to be of very different ages: the younger ſhoot up vertically, with their branches expanded all round, but the old ſtandards have a low and coarſe ſtem, not above ſix feet high to the branches,

growing

growing in figure like fruit-trees. Some of theſe are four or five fathoms in circumference, with ſeveral names cut on them. On this mountain are to be found ſtones, which have all the appearance of having been formerly mud; containing the bones of fiſhes, and ſome entire fiſhes, ſuppoſed to have been depoſited at the time of the deluge.

LETTER

LETTER XXXIV.

YOUR taſte for the Arabian Nights Entertainment will no doubt render you deſirous of knowing the preſent ſtate of Bagdad, which was the metropolis of the caliphate under the Saracens. It is built upon the Tigris, and ſuppoſed to be near the ſite of the ancient Babylon. It retains but few marks of its ancient ſplendor, but has ſtill a conſiderable trade. The houſes are generally large, built of brick and cement; and moſt of them have a court yard in front, in the middle of which is a ſmall plantation of orange trees. The inhabitants of this place were anciently famous for making various figures of earth or clay, with which the country abounded. The ſame materials ſtill exiſt in the neighbourhood; the clay is of a browniſh colour, and

and bituminous quality, and I obferved feveral children amufing themfelves with forming images of it.

The ancient Thnevea is now a heap of ruins, and the fite of it is occupied by Curdiftol, the capital of a country of the fame name, which was the ancient Affyria.

As I know the eftimation in which you hold a certain celebrated critic of antiquity, who fhall hereafter be mentioned, I may be affured of your defire to receive fome account of Palmyra.

Palmyra, or as it was called by the ancients, Tadmor in the Defert, is fituated in the wilds of Arabia Petræa, about two hundred miles to the fouth-eaft of Aleppo. It is approached through a narrow plain, abounding with remains of antiquity, at the termination of which the eye is prefented with a fight the moft magnificent that can be imagined in architecture. The Temple of the Sun lies in ruins; but the accefs to it is through a vaft number of beautiful Corinthian columns of white marble, the grandeur and beauty of which can only be conceived from drawings; and for this I muft refer you to the accurate plates pub-

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liſhed by Mr. Wood. Superb arches, amazing columns, a colonnade extending four thouſand feet in length, terminated by a noble mauſoleum, temples, fine porticos, periſtyles, intercolumniations, and entablatures, all of them in exquiſite taſte, and executed with the moſt beautiful materials, appear on all hands; but now ſo much disjointed, that it is impoſſible from them to form any adequate idea of the whole of the ſtructure when perfect. Theſe ſtriking remains are contraſted by the miſerable huts of the wild Arabs, who reſide in or near them.

Amidſt the preſent deſolation of this wonderful place, there yet exiſts in it one of the moſt perfect pieces of antiquity that is any where to be found. It is a mauſoleum, conſiſting of five ſtories, the floors and ſtairs of which are ſtill entire. An inſcription upon it informs us that it was built by Jambelicus, ſon of Mocimus, as a burial-place for himſelf and his family; and the date of it correſponds with the third year of the Chriſtian æra: ſo that it is now 1795 years old.

That ſo ſuperb a city, formerly ten miles in circumference, could exiſt in the midſt of what are now tracts of barren uninhabited ſand, is a fact which appears almoſt incredible. Yet nothing is more certain, than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom; that it was the emporium of the Eaſtern world, and that its merchants carried on a trade with the Romans, and the weſtern nations, for the merchandizes and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its preſent alter'd ſituation, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural cauſes, which have turned the moſt fertile tracts into barren deſerts. The Aſiatics think that Palmyra, as well as Balbec, owes its origin to Solomon, and their opinion receives ſome countenance from ſacred hiſtory. No mention of it occurs in profane hiſtory before the time of Mark Anthony, and its moſt ſuperb buildings are thought to be of the lower Empire, about the time of Gallienus. Odinathus, the laſt king of Palmyra, was highly careſſed by that Emperor, and even declared Auguſtus. His widow Zenobia reigned in great ſplendor for ſome time, and her ſecretary, as you

know,

know, was Longinus, the celebrated critic. Not being able to brook the Roman tyranny, ſhe declared war againſt the Emperor Aurelian, who made her priſoner, led her in triumph to Rome, where he put to death her principal nobility, and among others the excellent Longinus, the critic above mentioned. He afterwards took poſſeſſion of her city, and maſſacred its inhabitants; but expended large ſums out of Zenobia's treaſure on repairing the Temple of the Sun.

Turkey in Europe and Aſia forms a very large empire, but the population of the country is by no means equal to its extent or fertility. It is certainly not ſo great as it was before the chriſtian æra, or even under the Roman Emperors. One principal cauſe of this declenſion is the tyranny under which the inhabitants live; and another their polygamy. That the latter is unfavorable to population, may be evinced from many reaſons; and in fact we find that the Greeks and Armenians, among whom it is not practiſed, are incomparably more prolific than the Turks, notwithſtanding the rigid ſubjection under which they are kept by that nation. An additi-

onal caufe of depopulation is the plague, fo frequent in many parts of thefe countries. After all, I believe the Grand Seignior has more fubjects than any two European princes; though they are a greater mixture of people extremely different from each other in religion, than is to be found in moft other countries. Though this extenfive empire contains materials for the largeft plan of induftry and commerce, yet the Turks content themfelves with manufacturing cotton, carpets, leather, and foap. The moft valuable of their commodities, fuch as filk, a variety of drugs, and dying ftuffs, they generally export without giving them much additional value from their own labour; a circumftance highly difadvantageous to themfelves, but what renders the commerce with them more favorable to other nations. In one article, however, which is that of dying cotton fcarlet, they evince a dexterity beyond every other people in the world.

The internal commerce of the empire is extremely fmall, and managed entirely by Jews and Armenians. In their traffic with the feveral maritime countries of Europe, the

the Turks are entirely paſſive; leaving to thoſe nations the benefit of reſorting thither with their commodities, and bringing back thoſe of Turkey in the ſame bottoms. But the inattention of the Turks to objects of commerce is perhaps the beſt ſecurity to their government; for did they proſecute it with an activity ſuitable to the advantages they enjoy, they would excite in other nations ſuch a jealouſy as might ſhake the Ottoman throne. It is certain that if the Turkiſh dominions were in the poſſeſſion of Ruſſia, or any active ſtate, the trade maintained at preſent by other nations, would experience a vaſt diminution.

In general the character of the Aſiatic Turks is preferable to that of the European. They are hoſpitable to ſtrangers; and the vices of avarice and inhumanity prevail chiefly among their great men. Their charity and public ſpirit is conſpicuous in their building caravanſaries, or places of entertainment, on roads that are deſtitute of accommodation, for the refreſhment of poor pilgrims or travellers. With the ſame laudable view, they ſearch out the

beſt ſprings, and dig wells, for the convenience of ſuch paſſengers.

The ſedent poſture of the Turks is peculiar to themſelves. They ſit croſs-legged upon mats, or ſofas, not only at their meals but in company. They dine about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, and ſup at five in the winter, and ſix in ſummer, and this is their principal meal. Among the great people the diſhes are ſerved up one by one; but they have neither knife nor fork, and they are not permitted by their religion to uſe gold or ſilver ſpoons. Their victuals are always high ſeaſoned. Rice is the common food of the lower ſort, and ſometimes it is boiled up with gravy, but their chief diſh is pilau, which is mutton and fowl boiled to rags; and the rice being boiled quite dry, the ſoup, which is high ſeaſoned, is poured upon it. Their drink is water, ſherbet, and coffee; and the only debauch they know is in Opium. Gueſts of high rank ſometimes have their beards perfumed by a female ſlave. They are ſober from a principle of their religion, which forbids them the uſe of wine; but in pri-

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vate, many of them indulge themſelves in the uſe of ſtrong liquors.

The Turkiſh mode of life is extremely prejudicial to health and the vigor of the conſtitution. It is very uncommon to ſee any of the conſiderable inhabitants of this vaſt empire take the exerciſe of walking or riding either for health or amuſement. They ſpend almoſt their whole time within doors, converſing with the women, drinking coffee, ſmoaking tobacco, or chewing opium.

In Aſiatic Turkey in particular, nature ſeems to have brought all her productions to the greateſt perfection; and if the character of the inhabitants does not bear a juſt proportion to the excellence of the vegetable and animal kingdoms, it is becauſe they are debaſed by the form of their government, enervated by indolence and other cauſes, and deprived of all means of acquiring either uſeful or elegant knowledge.

LETTER

LETTER XXXV.

I AM now to write to you of a country, which having never viſited, (as very few Europeans have done,) I can only deſcribe from the imperfect accounts which have hitherto been delivered of it by travellers. This country is Tartary, in Aſia, a region of prodigious extent. You may well excuſe the defect of information on this ſubject, when even the Emperor of Ruſſia, to whom a great part of it belongs, and his miniſtry, are ignorant of its preciſe limits with the Chineſe, the Perſians, and other nations.

Tartary, taken in its fulleſt extent, is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north; by the Pacific Ocean on the eaſt; by China, India, Perſia, and the Caſpian ſea, on the ſouth, and by Muſcovy on the weſt. The

The air of this country is greatly diverſified, by reaſon of its vaſt extent from north to ſouth; the northern parts reaching beyond the arctic polar circle, and the ſouthern being in the ſame latitude with Spain, France, Italy, and part of Turkey.

Nova Zembla and Ruſſian Lapland are moſt uncomfortable regions; the earth, which is covered with ſnow nine months in the year, being extremely barren, and encumbered with unwholeſome marſhes, uninhabited mountains, and impenetrable woods. The climate of Siberia is cold, but the air pure and wholeſome; and a perſon of credit who has viſited that country, obſerves, that its inhabitants, in all probability, would live to extreme old age, if they were not addicted to an immoderate uſe of intoxicating liquors.

Siberia produces rye, oats, and barley, almoſt to the 60th degree of northern latitude. Some of the common vegetables likewiſe grow tolerably well; but every attempt to bring fruit-trees to bear, has hitherto proved ineffectual. There is reaſon however, to believe, that induſtry and patience may in the end overcome the rude-

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neſs of the climate. There are no bees in Siberia, but though it be therefore a land that flows not with honey, it is not deſtitute of milk, for cattle conſtitute the greater part of Tartarian property.

Aſtrachan and the ſouthern parts of Tartary are extremely fertile, owing more to nature than induſtry. The parts that are cultivated produce excellent fruits of almoſt all the kinds known in Europe, eſpecially grapes, which are reckoned the largeſt and fineſt in the world. The ſummers are very dry, and from the end of July to the beginning of Auguſt, the air is peſtered, and the ſoil ſometimes ruined, by incredible quantities of locuſts.

No probable conjecture can be formed with reſpect to the number of inhabitants in Tartary; but there is reaſon to conclude, that they are far from being proportioned to the extent of the country. They are in general, ſtrong-made ſtout men. The beauty of the Circaſſian women is a kind of ſtaple commodity in that country; for parents there make no ſcruple of ſelling their daughters, to recruit the ſeraglios of the great men of Turkey and Perſia. They

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are purchaſed when young, by merchants, and taught ſuch accompliſhments as ſuit their capacities, to render them more valuable againſt the day of ſale.

The Tartars are in general a wandering people. In their peregrinations they ſet out in the ſpring, their numbers in one body being frequently ten-thouſand, preceded by their flocks and herds. When they come to an inviting ſpot, they live upon it till all its graſs and verdure is eaten up. They have little money, except what they get from their neighbours, the Ruſſians, Perſians, or Turks, in exchange for cattle. With this they purchaſe cloth, ſilk, ſtuffs, and other apparel for their women. There are few mechanics amongſt them except thoſe who make arms. They avoid all labour as the greateſt ſlavery: their only employment being to tend their flocks, and manage their horſes.

The dwellings of the Tartars are huts, half ſunk in the ground; they have a fire in the middle, with a hole in the top to let out the ſmoke, and benches round the fire to ſit or lye upon. In the extreme northern provinces, during the winter, every family

family burrows itſelf as it were under ground; and they are ſaid to be ſo ſociable in their diſpoſitions, that they make ſubterraneous communications with each other. They are immoderately fond of horſe-fleſh, eſpecially if it be young and a little tainted, which makes their habitations extremely nauſeous. Some of the northern tribes prefer the fleſh raw, but the general way of eating it, is after it has been ſmoaked and dried.

The religion of the Tartars is for the moſt part accommodated to that of their neighbours; for it partakes of the Mahometan, the Gentoo, the Greek, and even the Popiſh religions. Some of them are profeſſed idolaters, and worſhip little rude images dreſſed up in rags. But the religion of the kingdom of Thibet, and Leſſa, a large tract of Tartary bordering upon China, is the moſt remarkable.— Theſe people are governed by the Grand Lama, whom they not only acknowledge as their ſovereign, but their deity; and he is alſo the great object of adoration for the various tribes of Heathen Tartars, who roam through the vaſt tract which ſtretches

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from the banks of the Wolga to Corea on the fea of Japan. He is not only the fovereign pontiff, the vicegerent of the deity on earth; but, as fuperftition is ever the ftrongeft where it is moft removed from its object, the more remote Tartars abfolutely regard him as the deity himfelf. They believe him to be immortal, and endowed with all knowledge and virtue. Every year they come up from different parts to worfhip and make rich offerings at his fhrine. Even the Emperor of China, who is a Manchou Tartar, does not fail of acknowledging him in his religious capacity, though the Lama is tributary to him.

These people entertain the notion, that when the Grand Lama feems to die either of old age or ficknefs, his foul in fact only quits a crazy habitation, to look for another younger and better; and it is difcovered again in the body of fome child, by certain tokens known only to the lamas or priefts, in which order he always appears. Befides his religious influence and authority, the Grand Lama is poffeffed of unlimited power through his dominions, which are very extenfive, and border on Bengal.

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Another religion very prevalent among the Tartars is that of Schamanifm, the profeffors of which believe in one fupreme God, the creator of all things. They believe that he loves his creation, and all his creatures; that he knows every thing, and is all powerful; but that he pays no attention to the particular actions of men, being too great for them to be able to offend him, or to do any thing that can be meritorious in his fight. But they alfo maintain that the fupreme being has divided the government of the world, and the deftiny of men, among a great number of inferior divinities, under his command and controul, but who neverthelefs generally act according to their own fancies; and therefore mankind cannot difpenfe with ufing all poffible means for obtaining their favor.

You will perhaps be furprifed to fee me mention learning among a nation of Tartars; yet nothing is more certain than that under Zingis Khan, and Tamerlane, and their early defcendants, Aftrachan, and the neighbouring countries were the feats of learning and politenefs, as well as empire and magnificence. The moft fplendid mo-

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dern luxury falls ſhort of that of thoſe princes; and ſome remains of their taſte in architecture are ſtill extant, but in ſpots ſo deſolate that they are almoſt inacceſſible.

Though Tartary, formerly known by the name of Scythia, was the nurſery which peopled the northern parts of Europe, and furniſhed thoſe amazing numbers, which under various names, overturned the Roman empire, yet it is now but thinly inhabited. This muſt be owing to the dreadful maſſacre made by the two abovementioned princes and their deſcendants; for nothing is more common in their hiſtories, than their putting to the ſword three or four hundred thouſand perſons in a few days.

The country of Uſbec Tartary was once the ſeat of a more powerful empire than that of Greece or Rome. It was not only the native country, but the favorite reſidence of Zingis Khan, and Tamerlane, who enriched it with the ſpoils of India and the eaſtern world. Some authors have abſurdly queſtioned the veracity of the hiſtorians of thoſe great conquerors, though in reality

reality it be better eſtabliſhed than that of the Greek or Roman writers.

The preſent inhabitants of this immenſe common, compoſe innumerable tribes, who range at pleaſure with their flocks and herds, in the old patriarchal manner. Their tribes are commanded by ſeparate khans, or leaders, who, upon particular emergencies, elect a great khan, who claims a paramount power over ſtrangers as well as natives, and can bring into the field from twenty to a hundred thouſand horſemen. Their method of carrying on war is by waſting the country; and this circumſtance renders them a dreadful enemy to regular troops, who muſt be deprived of all ſubſiſtence, while the Tartars having always many ſpare horſes to kill and eat, are at no loſs for proviſions.

Thus have I given you an account of a people the moſt rude in their polity, and the moſt ſingular in their ſuperſtition, of any that we find on the globe. But in general, ſingularity appears to be a predominant feature in the character of the Eaſtern nations.

LETTER

LETTER XXXVI.

I AM next to conduct you to China, under the particular impression of the sentiment with which I concluded my last letter. Excepting towards the north it is a plain country, containing no remarkable mountains. But there are in it many artificial mountains, on the tops of which are temples, monasteries, and other edifices. The country is better supplied with rivers, of which there are several; but the common water in China is very indifferent, and is in some places boiled to make it fit for use. To correct its bad quality, they likewise infuse in it, in many parts, the leaves of the tea plant; and I believe it is by that expedient that other nations first became acquainted with this celebrated shrub, now so generally used in the British dominions.

It appears from Sir George Staunton's account, that we have hitherto been in a miſtake reſpecting the green tea, which was ſaid to acquire its colour by being dried upon plates of copper. But he informs us that there is no ſuch practice in China, and that the green colour is entirely owing to the leaves being plucked off the ſhrub before they have come to maturity. A roughneſs of quality even from this cauſe, may prove hurtful to perſons of a nervous conſtitution, but by no means in ſuch a degree as from an impregnation of copper.

The character of the Chineſe for wiſdom and induſtry, is in nothing more conſpicuous than in their early attention to the conſtruction of canals, for the purpoſe of facilitating commerce. The commodiouſneſs and length of their canals are almoſt incredible. The chief of them are lined with hewn ſtone on the ſides, and they are ſo deep as to carry veſſels of great burden. They ſometimes extend above a thouſand miles in length. Theſe veſſels are fitted up for all the convenience of life; and it has been thought by ſome, that in China the water contains as many inhabitants as the

land. They are furniſhed with ſtone quays, and ſometimes with bridges of an amazing conſtruction. The navigation is ſlow, and the veſſel ſometimes drawn by men. No precautions are wanting that could be formed by art or perſeverance, for the ſafety of the paſſengers, in caſe a canal is croſſed by a rapid river, or expoſed to torrents from the mountains. Theſe canals and the variety that is ſeen upon their borders, render China highly pleaſant as well as fertile in places which are not ſo by nature.

This country being of great extent, the temperature of the air is different according to the ſituation of the places, ſo that while ſharp in the north, it is extremely hot in the ſouthern parts. The ſoil is, either by nature or art, fruitful of every thing that can miniſter to the neceſſaries, conveniencies, or luxuries of life; and this it is that renders the nation ſo populous. The millions of inhabitants which China is ſaid to contain are almoſt beyond credibility; and all between twenty and ſixty years of age pay an annual tax. Notwithſtanding the induſtry of the people, we are told that their amazing population frequently occa-

ſions a dearth. Parents who cannot ſup-port their female children, are permitted to caſt them into the river; but they faſten to the child a gourd, that it may float on the water; and it often happens that ſome compaſſionate people of fortune, who are moved by the cries of the children, ſave them from periſhing.

The Chineſe in general have been repre-ſented as the moſt diſhoneſt, low, thieving ſet of people in the world. Their hypo-criſy is ſaid to be without bounds; and the men of property among them practice the moſt avowed bribery, and the loweſt mean-neſſes to obtain preferment. But this cha-racter has been drawn by thoſe who were little acquainted with any parts of that empire but the ſea-port towns, where the inhabitants probably are worſe than in the interior parts of the country.

Among the cuſtoms peculiar to China, one is, that every Chineſe keeps in his houſe a table upon which are written the names of his father, grandfather, and great grand-father, before which they frequently burn incenſe, and proſtrate themſelves; and when the father of the family dies, the name

of

of the great grandfather is taken away, and that of the deceaſed is added.

One of the greateſt peculiarities in this country is its language. The Chineſe language contains only three hundred and thirty words, all of one ſyllable; but each word is pronounced with ſuch various modulations, and all of them with a different meaning, that it becomes more copious than could be eaſily imagined, and enables them to expreſs themſelves ſufficiently well in the communications of life. The Chineſe oral language being thus barren and contracted, is unfit for literature; and therefore their literature is all compriſed in arbitrary characters, which are amazingly complicated, and ſo numerous that it has been ſaid they amount to about eighty thouſand. Whatever eulogiums have been beſtowed on the learning of the Chineſe, this circumſtance is, in my opinion, ſufficient to refute the poſſibility of any great excellence in reſpect of ſuch an acompliſhment. In no part of the world, however, is learning attended with ſuch honors and rewards as in China. The literati are reverenced as men of another ſpecies, and are the

the only nobility known in the country. If their birth be ever ſo mean and low, they become mandarins of the higheſt rank, in proportion to the extent of their learning. On the other hand, however exalted their birth may be, they quickly ſink into obſcurity, if they neglect the ſtudies which had diſtinguiſhed their fathers.

The Chineſe range all their works of literature into four claſſes; compriſing, reſpectively, religion, hiſtory, philoſophy, and poetry. What proficiency they have really made in thoſe ſeveral branches, it is impoſſible for any perſon not acquainted with their language to aſcertain; but if we may form an opinion from the extreme veneration in which they hold the celebrated Confucius, the father of their moral philoſophy, we may reaſonably ſuppoſe that this is the branch which, next to that of religion, they conſider as the moſt perfect of their ſciences. With natural philoſophy they appear to be but little acquainted. That they have, however, a juſt claim to the invention of gunpowder, is fully aſcertained, from their making uſe of it againſt Tamerlane, before any ſuch compoſition

was

was known in Europe; but they were acquainted with cannon only, and knew nothing of ſmall fire arms. Their induſtry in their manufactures of ſtuffs, porcelane, japanning, and the like ſedentary trades is amazing, and can be equalled only by their labors in the field, in making canals, levelling mountains, raiſing gardens, and navigating their punts and boats.

China contains few natural curioſities, but thoſe of the artificial kind are ſtupendous. The great wall ſeparating China from Tartary, to prevent the incurſions of that nation, is ſuppoſed to extend about fifteen hundred miles. It is carried over mountains and vallies, and is built for the moſt part with brick and mortar, from twenty to twenty-five feet high, and about half as much in thickneſs. The Chineſe bridges cannot be ſufficiently admired.—They are erected ſometimes upon barges ſtrongly chained together, yet ſo as to be parted occaſionally, for allowing paſſage to the veſſels which ſail up and down the river. Some of them extend from mountain to mountain, and conſiſt only of one arch: that over the river Saffrany is four hundred

hundred cubits long, and five hundred high, though a ſingle arch, and joins two mountains. It is ſaid that in the interior parts of the empire ſome are yet more ſtupendous.

The triumphal arches of this country form the next ſpecies of artificial curioſities. They are not built in the Greek and Roman ſtyle of architecture, but they are ſuperb and beautiful; erected with vaſt labor and expence, and all of them to the memory of their great men. The number of them over the empire is ſaid to amount to many hundreds. Their ſepulchral monuments make likewiſe a diſtinguiſhed figure. Their towers, the models of which are now frequent in Europe, under the name of Pagodas, are great embelliſhments to the face of the country. That of Nanking, which is two hundred feet high, and forty in diameter, is the moſt admired, and is called the Porcelane Tower, on account of its being lined with Chineſe tiles. Their temples are chiefly remarkable for the uncouth taſte in which they are built, their whimſical ornaments, and the uglineſs of the idols they contain. The Chineſe, like the people of Cracow, are remarkably fond of bells; of

which

which there is one at Peking that weighs one hundred and twenty thoufand pounds, but its found is faid to be difagreeable. The laft curiofity I fhall mention is their fire-works, which are generally allowed to excel thofe of all other nations.

The empire of China is faid to contain four thoufand four hundred wall'd cities, the chief of which are Peking, Nanking, and Canton. The firft of thefe, the capital of the empire, is fituated in a very fertile plain, upwards of fifty miles diftant from the great wall, and is faid to contain of inhabitants to the enormous amount of many millions. The walls and gates of Peking are of the extraordinary height of fifty cubits, and are fo broad that the fentinels are placed upon them on horfeback. The principal edifice is the imperial palace, the grandeur of which confifts not fo much in the elegance of the architecture as in the multitude of its buildings, courts, and gardens, all regularly difpofed. The palace is faid to be three miles in circumference; and the front of the building fhines with gilding, paint, and varnifh, while the infide is fet off with every thing that is moft beau-

tiful and precious in China, the Indies, and Europe. The gardens of this palace are of great extent, and there are raiſed in them, at proper diſtances, artificial mounts, from twenty to ſixty feet high, between which are a number of ſmall vallies, plentifully watered with canals, and which uniting, are formed into a number of lakes.

Beautiful and magnificent barks ſail on theſe pieces of water, and the banks are ornamented with ranges of buildings, conſtructed in the moſt pleaſing and fantaſtic variety. The mounts are covered with ſuch trees as produce beautiful and aromatic flowers; and the canals are edged with ruſtic pieces of rock, ſo happily diſpoſed as to imitate the wildneſs of nature.

Of the religion of China little can be ſaid with any certainty. It ſeems as if the bulk of the people worſhipped ſenſible objects; but their philoſophers, we are told, entertain more juſt ſentiments of the Deity; and in general the morality of the nation approximates to that of Chriſtianity. But when I ſay ſo, I would be underſtood to ſpeak excluſively of the charges of diſhoneſty

and

and hypocrisy which have been mentioned above.

The original plan of the Chinese government seems to have been patriarchal, almost in the strictest sense of the word, and the emperor has hitherto been held by the people in the highest degree of veneration. But if we may give credit to some late accounts from that country, the same spirit of sedition and tumult which at present actuates different provinces of Europe, has made its appearance in the empire of China. What may be the issue of these disorders it is difficult to say; but should intestine divisions proceed, it is probable that the Tartar nations on the north of the great wall, will embrace so favorable an opportunity of surmounting the barrier which has been raised to prevent their hostile incursions; and the standard of the Grand Lama may yet be erected on the imperial palace at Peking.

LETTER XXXVII.

HAVING previoufly taken a furvey of China, I come by a circuitous courfe to the continent of India; a country not unknown even in the time of Solomon, and whence the Greeks and Romans drew their moft precious materials of luxury. What credit do you think would have been given to any prophet who fhould have predicted that in the courfe of the prefent century, a company of Britifh merchants would acquire in this country a dominion far more extenfive than that of their own native fovereign?

——— quod optanti divûm promittere nemo
Auderet, volvenda dies en attulit ultro.

Yet fuch an event has taken place; an extraordinary phænomenon, and unexampled in the hiftory of mankind. This country is generally divided into three great parts; namely,

namely, the Peninſula of India beyond the Ganges, called the Farther Peninſula; the Main-Land, or the Mogul's Empire; and the Peninſula within, or on this ſide the Ganges.

The original inhabitants of India are called Gentoos; or, according to others, Hindoos, and the country Hindoſtan or Indoſtan. They pretend that Brumma, their legiſlator, both in politics and religion, was inferior only to God, and that he exiſted many thouſand years before our account of the Creation. The Bramins, who are the Gentoo prieſts, farther ſay, that he bequeathed to them a book called the Vidam, containing his doctrines and inſtitutions, and that though the original is loſt, they are ſtill in poſſeſſion of a commentary upon it, called Shatſka, which is written in the Shanſcrite tongue, now a dead language, and known only to the Bramins who ſtudy it. The foundation of Brumma's doctrine conſiſted in the belief of a Supreme Being, who has created a regular gradation of beings; in the immortality of the ſoul, and a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments; which is to con-

ſiſt of a tranſmigration into different bodies, according to the lives they have led in their pre-exiſtent ſtate. From this it appears more than probable that the Pythagorean Metempſychoſis took its riſe in India. The Bramins, however, to operate upon the minds of the people, have had recourſe to ſenſible repreſentations of the Deity and his attributes, ſo that the original doctrines of Brumma have degenerated into rank and ridiculous idolatry, in the worſhip of ſeveral animals, and various images; which are likewiſe of the moſt hideous figures, either painted or carved.

The Hindoos have, from time immemorial been divided into four great tribes, comprehending the different claſſes of ſociety: the firſt and nobleſt of theſe are the Bramins, who alone can officiate in the prieſthood, like the Levites among the Jews. Beſides this diviſion into tribes, the Gentoos, or Hindoos, are alſo divided into caſts; of which it is computed there are no leſs than eighty-four, though ſome make the number ſtill greater. All theſe caſts differ from each other in point of rank, and they are extremely tenacious of the privi-

leges

leges and cuftoms annexed to their different divifions. An Indian of an inferior would think himfelf honored by adopting the cuftoms of a fuperior caft; but the latter would have recourfe to blows, fooner than not vindicate its prerogatives. The inferior receives with refpect the victuals prepared by a fuperior caft, but the latter will not partake of a meal which has been prepared by the hands of an inferior; and their marriages are circumfcribed by the fame barriers as the reft of their intercourfes.

The diet of thofe people is chiefly rice and vegetables, dreffed with ginger and other fpices, which grow almoft fpontaneoufly in their gardens. They efteem milk the pureft of food, becaufe they think it partakes of fome of the properties of the nectar of their gods, and becaufe they efteem the cow herfelf almoft as a divinity. Their manners are gentle, and their happinefs confifts in domeftic life. Their religion permits them to have feveral wives, but they feldom have more than one; and it has been obferved that their wives are diftinguifhed by a decency of behaviour, and a faithful attachment to their hufbands, which

which might do honor to married women in the most civilized countries. The custom of women burning themselves upon the death of their husbands, seems not to be abolished, though it is now less frequent than formerly.

The religion of the Gentoos forbids them to quit their own shores; and this injunction seems to be founded upon a principle of policy. They are taught that the waters of the three great rivers, Ganges, Kistna, and Indus, have the sacred virtue of purifying those who bathe in them from all pollution and sins; and hence they are restrained from emigrating into distant countries. The sacred rivers are so situated that there is no part of India where the inhabitants may not have an opportunity of washing away their sins. The Ganges, which rises in the mountains of Thibet, runs through the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, and the upper provinces of Oude, Delhi, &c. The Kistna divides the Carnatic from Golconda, and runs through the Visapour into the interior parts of the Decan; while the Indus, bounding the

Guzarat

Guzarat provinces, ſeparates Indoſtan from the dominions of Perſia.

The Gentoos are much leſs under the influence of their paſſions than the inhabitants of other countries; and for this there ſeems to be two cauſes. Their vegetable diet affords leſs nouriſhment than that which conſiſts of animal food; and by marrying early, the males before fourteen, and the females at ten or eleven years of age, they are kept low and feeble in their perſons. A man is in the decline of life at thirty, and the beauty of the women is in decay at eighteen; at twenty-five they have all the marks of old age.

Such are the people who form the great body of the ſubjects of the Britiſh empire in India; and conſidering they are extremely numerous, it is fortunate for the ſecurity of our ſettlements in that country, that they are of pacific diſpoſitions. This is more than can be ſaid of the neighbouring natives in India.

The Mahometans, who, in Indoſtan are called Moors, are of Perſian, Turkiſh, Arabic, and other extractions. They early began, in the reigns of the caliphs of Bagdad;

dad, to invade Indoſtan. They penetrated as far as Delhi, which they made their capital; but their empire was overturned by Tamerlane, who founded the Mogul government. Thoſe princes being ſtrict Mahometans, received under their protection all who profeſſed the ſame religion, and who being a brave, active people, counterbalanced the number of the natives. They are ſaid to have introduced the diviſion of provinces, over which they appointed ſoubahs; and theſe provinces, each of which might be ſtyled an empire, were ſubdivided into nabobſhips; each nabob being immediately accountable to his Soubah, who, in proceſs of time became almoſt independent of the Emperor, or, as he is called, the Great Mogul, upon their paying him an annual tribute. The vaſt reſort of Perſian and Tartar tribes has likewiſe ſtrengthened the Mahometan government; but it is obſerved, that in two or three generations, the progeny of thoſe adventurers degenerate into all the indolence and ſenſuality of the Eaſt.

Of all thoſe tribes, the Mahrattas at preſent make the greateſt figure. They are a

kind

kind of mercenaries, who live on the mountains between Indoſtan and Perſia. They commonly ſerve on horſeback, and when well commanded, they have been known to give law even to the court of Delhi. Though originally Gentoos, they are of bold active ſpirits, and pay no great reſpect to the principles of their religion.

Bengal, of all the Indian provinces, is perhaps the moſt intereſting to a Briton. It is regarded as the ſtore-houſe of the Eaſt-Indies. Its fertility exceeds that of Egypt after having been overflowed by the Nile; and the produce of its ſoil conſiſts of rice, ſugar-canes, corn, reſamum, ſmall mulberries and other trees. Its calicos, ſilks, ſaltpetre, lacca, opium, wax, and civet go all over the world; and proviſions here are in great plenty, and incredibly cheap, particularly pullets, ducks, and geeſe. The country is interſected by canals cut out of the Ganges for the benefit of commerce, and extends near a hundred leagues on both ſides of the Ganges, full of towns and villages. The principal Engliſh factory in Bengal is at Calcutta, which is likewiſe the

the capital ſeat of the Britiſh government in that country.

The winds in this climate generally blow for ſix months from the ſouth, and ſix from the north. April, May, and the beginning of June are exceſſively hot, but refreſhed by ſea-breezes; and in ſome dry ſeaſons, the hurricanes, which tear up the ſands, and let them fall in dry ſhowers, are extremely diſagreeable. In general the Europeans who arrive at Indoſtan are commonly ſeized with ſome illneſs, ſuch as a flux, or fever, under different appearances; but when properly treated, eſpecially if the patients are abſtemious, they recover, and afterwards prove healthy.

In the peninſula within the Ganges, about the end of June a ſouth-weſt wind begins to blow from the ſea on the coaſt of Malabar, which lies to that aſpect; and this, with continual rains, laſts four months, during which time all is ſerene on the coaſt of Coromandel, on the eaſt ſide of the peninſula. Towards the end of October, the rainy ſeaſon and the change of the monſoons begin on the Coromandel coaſt, which being deſtitute of good harbours, renders

renders it extremely dangerous for ſhips to remain there during that time; and to this is owing, the periodical returns of the Engliſh ſhipping to Bombay, upon the Malabar coaſt. The air is naturally hot in this peninſula, but it is refreſhed by breezes; the wind changing every twelve hours. The inhabitants in this part are more black in complexion than thoſe of the other peninſulas of India, though lying nearer to the equator, which has made ſome ſuſpect them to be the deſcendants of an ancient colony from Ethiopia. Fort St. George, better known by the name of Madras, is the capital of the Engliſh Eaſt India Company's territories in this part. But I have ſaid enough to you of this country. The farther peninſula of India is ſtill very imperfectly known; and I ſhall not enter upon any account of the numerous iſlands in the Indian ſea, as the diſtinction between them conſiſts chiefly in the difference of extent, and the diverſity of produce, which is moſtly that of the ſpices.

LETTER

LETTER XXXVIII.

DIrecting our courſe weſtward from India, we enter the kingdom of Perſia, formerly the dominion of the great Cyrus, and a country which gave name to one of the moſt celebrated monarchies in the ancient world. In ſo extenſive an empire, both the air and the ſoil muſt differ greatly in the ſeveral provinces. Thoſe in the northern part, as lying near mountains commonly covered with ſnow, are cold; but in the ſouthern provinces, the air is hot, and ſometimes communicates noxious blaſts to the midland part, which otherwiſe enjoys a ſerene and pure atmoſphere. The ſoil is not luxuriant towards Tartary and the Caſpian ſea, but with cultivation it might produce abundance of corn and fruits. South of Mount Taurus, the fertility of the country

country in corn, fruits, wine, and the other luxuries of life, are equalled by few countries. The fruits in general are delicious, and in ſome parts, near Iſpahan eſpecially, produce almoſt all the flowers that are cultivated in Europe, but of a more exalted flavour. There is, however, perhaps no country of ſo great an extent, that has ſo few rivers as Perſia. The moſt conſiderable are thoſe of Kur, ancient Cyrus; and Aras, anciently Araxes, which riſe in the mountains of Ararat, and joining their ſtreams, fall into the Caſpian ſea. Some ſmall rivulets falling from the mountains, water the country in particular parts; but upon the whole, there is a ſcarcity of water, though this defect, where it prevails, is uſually ſupplied by means of reſervoirs, aqueducts, canals, and other ingenious expedients. Water, in all the Mahometan countries, is an article of great conſumption, on account of their frequent ablutions; and this is no where more neceſſary, than in Perſia, as the inhabitants ſeldom change their linen: a cuſtom in hot climates particularly prejudicial.

In

In the morning early the Perſians drink coffee, and about eleven o'clock go to dinner, which conſiſts of fruits, ſweetmeats, and milk. Their chief meal is at night. They eat at their repaſts cakes of rice, and others of wheat flower; and holding it an abomination to cut either bread or any kind of meat, after it is dreſſed, theſe cakes are made thin, that they may be eaſily broken with the hand. Their meat which is generally mutton, or fowls, is ſo prepared, that they divide it with their fingers. But with reſpect to one diſh in particular, they have deviated from the taſte of their anceſtors. The ancient Perſians never ſat down to a great entertainment without a roaſted aſs before them, which was always ſerved up entire. This luxury is now fallen into diſuſe; but the change ſeems not to proceed from any ſuperior delicacy in their entertainments of eating and drinking. They are temperate, however, in every thing, except in the uſe of tobacco; of which they are ſo immoderately fond, that ſome of them have been known to leave their country, rather than be debarred from that enjoyment. They ſmoke through a tube

tube fixed in water, ſo as to be cool in the mouth. The Perſians are paſſionately fond of poetry, moral ſentences, and hyperbole; and in all ages have been remarkable for hoſpitality. They are likewiſe fond of riding, and excel, as their anceſtors the Parthians did, in archery.

There is in Perſia an extraordinary fine breed of ſheep, the wool and fleſh of which are equally valued. It is not uncommon for them to have tails that weigh eight or ten pounds, and they have ſix or eight horns; ſome of which ſtand out horizontally, and occaſion a great deal of blood to be ſpilt when the rams engage with each other. Their goats likewiſe are much eſteemed for the fine wool on their bellies, as well as for their fleſh.

Men may marry for life, or for any determined time, in Perſia, as well as over all Turkey; and travellers or merchants, who intend to ſtay ſome time in any city, and are diſpoſed for ſuch a contract, commonly apply to the cadee or judge, for a wife during the time of his reſidence.

The Perſians in ancient times were famous for learning, and their poets renowned

ed all over the east; but I suspect, from the taste which the Persians have for hyperbole, that however animated their compositions might be, they would furnish a critic with more examples of bombast than of the genuine sublime. Be this as it may, there certainly is in the University of Oxford, a manuscript, containing the lives of no less than a hundred and thirty-five of the finest poets. One of these, named Ferdosi, comprised the history of Persia, in a series of epic poems, which employed him near thirty years, and which Mr. Jones affirms to be a glorious monument of Eastern genius and learning. Two other celebrated Persian poets are Hafiz and Sheik Sadi; and the tombs of both, which still remain, are held in great veneration. That of Hafiz stands about two miles from the city of Sherauz. It is constructed of fine white marble, eight feet in length, and four in breadth. On the top and sides of the tomb are select pieces from the poet's own works, most beautifully cut in the Persian character. During the spring and summer seasons, the inhabitants visit here, and amuse themselves with smoaking, playing at chess

and

and other games; reading alſo the works of Hafiz, whoſe memory they venerate almoſt to a degree of adoration.

About three or four miles from the tomb of Hafiz, is that of Sheik Sadi. This is a large ſquare building, at the upper end of which are two alcove receſſes in the wall, built of ſtone, in good preſervation. On the ſides of it are engraved many ſentences relative to the poet and his works. Sadi flouriſhed about five-hundred and fifty years ago, and his productions are held in great eſteem among all the eaſtern nations, for their morality, and the excellent precepts they inculcate. On the top of the tomb is a covering of painted wood, black and gold, on which is written an ode of the Sheik's, and on removing this board, is perceived the ſtone coffin in which his remains were depoſited. This the votaries who come thither, take care to ſtrew with flowers, roſaries, and various offerings.

At preſent learning is at a very low ebb among the Perſians. Their boaſted ſkill in aſtronomy is reduced to a mere ſmattering in that ſcience, and terminates in judicial

aſtrology,

aſtrology, to which the Perſians are now ſuperſtitiouſly addicted. The learned profeſſion in greateſt eſteem amongſt them is that of medicine, which is at perpetual variance with aſtrology; becauſe every doſe muſt be adminiſtered in the auſpicious hour fixed by the aſtrologers: a reſtriction which muſt often defeat the ſucceſs of whatever has been preſcribed.

The moſt remarkable piece of antiquity in Perſia, is the famous palace of Perſepolis, which ſtands at the diſtance of between thirty and forty miles from Sherauz. It is ſituated on a riſing ground, and commands an extenſive proſpect over the plain of Merdaſht. The mountain Rehumut encircles the palace in the form of an amphitheatre. You aſcend to the columns by a grand ſtair-caſe of blue ſtone, conſiſting of a hundred and four ſteps. The firſt object that ſtrikes the beholder on his entrance, are two portals of ſtone, each about fifty feet in height. The ſides are embelliſhed with two ſphinxes of an immenſe ſize, dreſſed out with a profuſion of bead-work, and, contrary to the uſual method, they are repreſented ſtanding. On the ſides above are

are inſcriptions in an ancient character, the meaning of which no perſon hitherto has been able to decypher.

At a ſmall diſtance from theſe portals you aſcend another flight of ſteps, which lead to the grand hall of columns. The ſides of this ſtair-caſe are ornamented with a variety of figures in baſſo-relievo. Moſt of them have veſſels in their hands; here and there a camel appears, and in other parts a triumphal car, deſigned after the Roman faſhion. Beſides theſe, are ſeveral led horſes, oxen and rams, which diverſify the proceſſion. At the head of the ſtair-caſe, is another baſſo-relievo, repreſenting a lion ſeiſing a bull; and cloſe to this are other inſcriptions in ancient characters

On arriving at the top of the ſtair-caſe, you enter what was formerly a moſt magnificent hall. Fifteen of the columns yet remain entire, and are maſterly pieces of maſonry. Their pedeſtals are curiouſly worked, and appear little injured by the ravages of time. The ſhafts are fluted up to the top, and the capitals are adorned with a profuſion of fret work.

Proceeding

Proceeding eastward from this hall, you arrive at a very large square building, the entrance to which is through a door of granite. Most of the doors and windows of this apartment still exist; they are of black marble, and polished like a mirror. On the sides of the doors, at the entrance, are bas-reliefs of two figures at full length, they represent a man in the attitude of stabbing a goat; with one hand he seizes the animal by the horn, and with the other thrusts a dagger into its belly. One of the goat's feet rests upon the breast of the man, and the other upon his right arm. This device is common throughout the palace. Over another door of the same apartment, is a representation of two men at full length: Behind them stands a domestic, holding in his hand a spread umbrella. They are supported by large round staves, appear to be in years, have long beards, and a profusion of hair upon their heads.

At the south-west entrance of this apartment are two large pillars of stone, upon which are carved four figures; they are dressed in long garments, and hold in their hands

hands ſpears ten feet in length. At this entrance alſo the remains of a ſtair-caſe of blue ſtone are ſtill viſible. Vaſt numbers of broken pieces of pillars, ſhafts, and capitals, are ſcattered over a conſiderable extent of ground; ſome of them of ſuch an enormous ſize, that it is wonderful to think how they could have been brought whole, and ſet up together.

The materials of which this palace is compoſed, are chiefly hard blue ſtone; but the doors and windows of the apartments are all of black marble, and ſo beautifully poliſhed as to reflect an object like a mirror. One of the principal things worthy of remark, is the immenſe ſtrength of the foundation. The whole of the palace takes in a circuit of fourteen hundred ſquare yards; its front from north to ſouth is ſix hundred paces, and from eaſt to weſt three hundred and ninety. The height of the foundation, in front, is in ſeveral parts from forty to fifty feet, and conſiſts of two immenſe ſtones laid together. The ſides are not ſo high, and are more unequal, owing to the vaſt quantity of ſand which has fallen from the mountain.

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The hall of pillars appears to have been detached from the reſt of the palace, and to have had a communication with the other parts by hollow galleries of ſtone. By the pedeſtals of the pillars which remain, the hall ſeems originally to have conſiſted of nine diſtinct rows of columns, each containing ſix; making conſequently in all fifty-four. The fifteen that remain are from ſeventy to eighty feet in height, the diameter at the baſe is twelve feet, and the diſtance between each column twenty-two. By the poſition of the front pillars, the hall appears to have been open towards the plain; but four of the pillars facing the mountain, and which are at ſome diſtance from the reſt, ſeem to have been intended for a portico, or entrance from the eaſt. The materials of the columns are a mixed ſort of red ſtone, granular. The hall, ſituated on an eminence, and commanding an extenſive view of the plain of Merdaſht, is ſtrikingly grand, and conveys to the beholder the idea of a hall of audience of a powerful and warlike monarch.

When and by whom this palace was originally built, it is impoſſible to determine.

Some have aſcribed it to Darius, the Perſian emperor, who was conquered by Alexander. That it is however of great antiquity no doubt can be entertained.

Behind the hall of pillars, and cloſe under the mountain, are the remains of a very large building of a quadrangular form.— This may have made either a part of the palace, or perhaps a detached temple; as it has within-ſide ſymbols emblematical of religious appropriation. This building has four principal entrances in different quarters.

Notwithſtanding the magnificence of theſe, and other ancient buildings found in different parts of Perſia, they are void of that elegance and beauty which we admire in the Greek architecture. The tombs of the Perſian kings are ſtupendous works, cut out of a rock, and highly ornamented with ſculpture.

The houſes of the men of quality in Perſia are in the ſame taſte with thoſe of the Aſiatic Turks. They are ſeldom above one ſtory high, built of bricks, with flat roofs for walking on, and thick walls. The doors are narrow and clumſy, the hall arched; and the rooms have no communi-

cation but with the hall, the kitchen and office houſes being built apart. Inſtead of chimnies, moſt of them have a round hole in the middle of the room. Their furniture chiefly conſiſts of carpets; and their beds are two thick cotton quilts, which ſerve them likewiſe for coverlids, with carpets under them.

Iſpahan, the capital of Perſia, ſtands in a fine plain, within a mile of the river Zenderhand, which ſupplies it with water. It is computed to be twelve miles in circumference; of which the royal palace occupies a great part. The ſtreets are narrow and crooked, and the chief amuſement of the inhabitants is on the flat roofs of their houſes, where they generally ſpend the ſummer evenings. There are in Iſpahan no leſs than a hundred and ſixty moſques, and eighteen hundred caravanſeras. The number of public baths is likewiſe very great.

The Perſians equal, if not exceed all the manufacturers in the world in ſilk, woollen, mohair, carpets, and leather. In their carpets, in particular, they have the art of joining fancy, taſte, and elegance to rich-

neſs,

neſs, neatneſs, and ſhew; notwithſtanding which they are ignorant of painting, and their drawings are very rude. Their dying excels that of Europe. Their ſilver and gold laces, and threads, are admirable for preſerving their luſtre. Their embroideries, and horſe furniture are not to be equalled; nor are they ignorant of the pottery and window-glaſs manufactures. On the other hand, their carpenters are very indifferent workmen; which is ſaid to be owing to the ſcarcity of timber all over Perſia. Their jewellers and goldſmiths are alſo clumſy artiſts, and they are ignorant of clock-making, and the manufacture of looking glaſſes. But they lie under great diſadvantages from the arbitrary form of government, and the rapacity exerciſed by thoſe who often aſcend the throne by uſurpation.

The irrevocable laws of the ancient Medes and Perſians are no longer known, having periſhed, it is probable, with the conſtitution to which they owed their exiſtence. At preſent, in Perſia, as in every mahometan country, they have no other law but the koran, and the comments of the eccleſiaſtics upon it. The prieſts enjoy

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the privilege of being judges in all cafes, both civil and religious; but fuch as are criminal, the governors take upon them to decide: not however without this authority being protefted againft by the priefthood. In refpect to the judgments of the king, or his viceroys, they are all arbitrary.

The law in cafes of debt is extremely fevere. If the debtor be unable to pay, he is delivered to the creditor to be dealt with as he fhall determine; the latter having it in his power to fell him, with all his family, or make flaves of the whole, if he pleafes.

All perfons here plead their own caufe, the women as well as the men; only the former are veiled, and have a particular part of the court affigned them to ftand in. The principal bufinefs for which they appear before a judge, is to obtain a divorce. They ufually ground their action on the impotence of their hufbands, and are always on thofe occafions extremely clamorous.

Murders and robberies rarely occur in Perfia, guards being placed on every road to prevent them, or apprehend offenders. Bakers and cooks have fometimes been baked or roafted alive, for defrauding the

people

people of their proviſions by falſe weights; but for the moſt part, they are only confined, or condemned to the baſtinado.

Though the Perſians profeſs the religion of Mahomet no leſs than the Turks, they differ conſiderably in their principles from thoſe of that nation; the latter following Abubeker, Omar, and Oſman, and the former the comments of Hali. Such is the antipathy between thoſe two ſects, that, not content with the moſt rancorous hatred, they even curſe each other in their prayers. Both parties, however, call themſelves Muſſelmen, or of the number of the faithful. They have two articles of faith, namely, that there is but one God; and that Mahomet is his prophet. The commandments of their religion are, to obſerve corporal purifications; to pray five fives a day; to give alms; to faſt in the month Ramezan; and to go on pilgrimage to Mecca. To this ſyſtem the Perſians add another article of faith, which is, that Hali is the vicar of God.

Their religion is, if poſſible, in ſome things, more fantaſtical and ſenſual than that of the Turks, and is in many points mingled with

with Bramin ſuperſtitions. Some of them even maintain the Pythagorean doctrine of tranſmigration. There are ſtill in the country a vaſt number of Guebres or Gaurs, who pretend to be the diſciples and ſucceſſors of the ancient Magi, the followers of Zoroaſter. A combuſtible ſpot of ground, about ten miles diſtant from Baku, a city in the north of Perſia, is the ſcene where theſe people perform their ſolemn devotions. There are upon this ground ſeveral old little temples, in one of which the Guebres pretend to preſerve the ſacred flame of the univerſal fire, which riſes from the end of a large hollow cane ſtick in the ground, reſembling a lamp burning with very pure ſpirits.

LETTER XXXIX.

FROM the kingdom which I laſt viſited, there is an immediate tranſition into Arabia. This country is formed into three diviſions, which are Arabia Petræa, on the north-weſt; Arabia Deſerta, in the middle; and Arabia Felix, on the ſouth-eaſt. It is almoſt ſurrounded with ſeas, and there are few fountains, ſprings, or rivers in this country, except the Euphrates, which waſhes the north-eaſt limits of it. As a conſiderable part of this territory lies under the Torrid Zone, the air is exceſſively hot and dry, and the country is ſubject to hot peſtilential winds, like thoſe on the oppoſite ſhores of Perſia, which often prove fatal, eſpecially to ſtrangers. The ſoil in ſome parts, is nothing more than immenſe ſands, which, when agitated by the winds, roll like the troubled ocean, and ſometimes form

form mountains, by which whole caravans have been overwhelmed. In theſe deſerts the caravans having no tracks, are guided as at ſea, by a compaſs, or by the ſtars, for they travel chiefly in the night.

This country, except ſometimes at the equinoxes, is never refreſhed with rain; and the intenſeneſs of the cold in the night, is almoſt equal in degree to that of the heat in the day-time. But the ſouthern parts of Arabia, deſervedly called the happy, is bleſſed with an excellent ſoil, and in general, is very fertile. The cultivated lands, which are chiefly about the towns near the ſea coaſt, produce balm of gilead, manna, myrrh, caſſia, aloes, frankincenſe, ſpikenard, and other valuable gums; with cinnamon, pepper, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and other fruits. Honey and wax are in great plenty, and there is a ſmall quantity of corn and wine. This country is famous for its coffee and its dates, the laſt of which are ſcarcely found any where in ſuch perfection as here and in Perſia. There are few trees fit for timber in Arabia, and little wood of any kind.

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The moſt uſeful animals in this country are camels and dromedaries, which are admirably fitted by Providence for traverſing the dry and parched deſerts; for by a peculiar contrivance in their œconomy, they can throw up the liquor from their ſtomach into their throat, and by that means can travel ſix or eight days without water. The camels uſually carry eight hundred pounds weight on their backs, which are alſo peculiarly formed for the ſecurity of burdens, which are not removed during the whole journey: for the camels naturally kneel down to reſt, and afterwards riſe without diſcompoſing their loads. The dromedary is a ſmall camel that will travel many miles a day. It is a common obſervation among the Arabs, that wherever there are trees, water is not far off. The camels will ſmell a pool at a conſiderable diſtance, and ſet up their great trot till they come to it. I need not tell you, that the Arabian horſes are well known in Europe, and have contributed to improve the breed of thoſe in England.

The Arabians, like moſt of the nations in Aſia, are of a middle ſtature, thin, and of

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a ſwarthy complexion, with their hair and eyes black. They are ſwift of foot, excellent horſemen, and in general a martial people, expert at the bow and lance, and, ſince they became acquainted with fire arms, good markſmen. The inhabitants of the inland country live in tents, after the manner of the Tartars, and remove from place to place with their flocks and herds. But they are in general ſuch robbers, that travellers and pilgrims who come thither from all nations, through motives of devotion or curioſity, are ſtruck with terror on approaching towards the deſerts. For thoſe banditti, headed by a captain, traverſe the country in conſiderable troops on horſeback, and aſſault and plunder the caravans. On the ſea coaſt they act likewiſe as pirates, and make prizes of every veſſel which they can maſter, of whatever nation.

The roving Arabs have all the appearance of banditti. Their habit is a kind of blue ſhirt, tied about them with a white ſaſh or girdle; and ſome of them have a veſt of furs or ſheep ſkins over it. They wear drawers, and ſometimes ſlippers, but no

ſtockings;

ſtockings; and have a cap or turban on their heads. Many of them go almoſt naked; but, as in the eaſtern countries, the women are ſo wrapped up, that nothing can be ſeen but their eyes. Like other Mahometans, the Arabs eat all kinds of fleſh, except that of hogs; but prefer the fleſh of camels to any other. Their uſual drink is water, ſometimes ſweetened with ſugar, or ſherbet made of oranges. They likewiſe drink coffee, and even tea; but uſe no ſtrong liquors.

The Arabians in former times were famous for their learning, and ſkill in all the liberal arts, particularly that of medicine; and ſcience was known amongſt them even during the period of the darkeſt ages in Europe: but there is ſcarcely any country at preſent where the people are ſo univerſally ignorant. The common language in the three Arabias is the Arabick, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewiſe ſpoken with ſome variation of dialect, over great part of the Eaſt, from Egypt to the court of the Great Mogul. The pure Arabic which is ſaid to be a dialect of the Hebrew, and accounted by the eaſtern nations the moſt copious

pious and energetic language in the world, is taught in their ſchools, as Greek and Latin among the Europeans, and uſed by Mahometans in their worſhip; for as the Koran was written in this language, they will not ſuffer it to be read in any other.

The famous Mount Sinai, is ſituated in Arabia Petræa. From it may be ſeen Mount Horeb, where Moſes kept the flocks of Jethro, his father-in-law, when he ſaw the burning buſh. On both theſe mountains are many chapels and cells, occupied by the Greek and Latin monks, who, like the religious at Jeruſalem, pretend to ſhew the very ſpot which was the ſcene of any miracle or tranſaction recorded in ſcripture. What is called the Deſert of Sinai, is a beautiful plain near nine miles long, and about three in breadth. It lies open to the north-eaſt, but to the ſouthward is cloſed by ſome of the lower eminences of Mount Sinai; and other parts of the mountain make ſuch encroachments upon the plain, as to divide it in two, each ſo capacious as to have been ſufficient to receive the whole camp of the Iſraelites.

The

The chief cities in Arabia are Mocha, Aden, Mufcar, Suez, and Juddah, where moft of the trade of this country is carried on. Mocha is well built, the houfes very lofty, and covered with a ftucco which gives them a dazzling whitenefs. The circuit of the walls is two miles, and there are in it feveral handfome mofques. Suez, the Arfinoe of the ancients, is furrounded by the Defert, and is but an ill-built place. Juddah is the place of the greateft trade on the Red Sea. But the capital of all Arabia is Mecca, the birth-place of Mahomet. There is here a mofque which is generally accounted the moft magnificent of any temple in the Turkifh dominions. Its roof, which is lofty, is raifed in the fafhion of a dome, and covered with gold; having at the end two beautiful towers, of extraordinary height and architecture. The mofque has two gates, with a window over each; and the whole building within is decorated with the fineft gildings and tapeftry. The number of pilgrims who yearly vifit this place is almoft incredible; every muffelman being obliged by his reli-

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gion to come thither once in his life time, or ſend a deputy.

At the city of Medina likewiſe, to which Mahomet fled when he was driven out of Mecca, and which is the place where he was buried, is a ſtately moſque, ſupported by four hundred pillars, and furniſhed with three hundred ſilver lamps, which are continually burning. The Turks give this moſque the name of the "Moſt Holy," becauſe in it is placed the coffin of their prophet Mahomet, covered with cloth of gold, under a canopy of ſilver tiſſue, which the Baſhaw of Egypt, by order of the Grand Seignior, renews every year. The camel which brings it, is held in a ſort of veneration, and is never afterwards to be employed in any drudgery. Over the foot of the coffin is a rich golden creſcent, curiouſly wrought, and adorned with precious ſtones. To this place the pilgrims reſort, as to Mecca, but not in ſuch numbers.

From the licentiouſneſs of the Arabs, and the predatory life which they lead, one would be apt to think that there was no political ſubordination amongſt them; but the inland country of Arabia is under the

government

government of many petty princes, who are ſtyled Xerifs and Imans, both of them compriſing the offices of king and prieſt, in the ſame manner as the caliphs of the Saracens, the ſucceſſors of Mahomet. They are in fact abſolute both in temporal and ſpiritual authority; the ſucceſſion is hereditary, and they have no other laws than thoſe found in the koran, and the comments upon it. The northern Arabs owe ſubjection to the Turks, and are governed by baſhaws reſiding among them; but it is certain that they receive large gratuities from the Grand Seignior, for protecting the pilgrims that paſs through thoſe parts from the danger of being robbed.

The ſouthern and inland parts of Arabia have had the ſingular good fortune not only to maintain their freedom and independence through all ages, but to have made the moſt extenſive and rapid conqueſts ever atchieved by any nation. This was, however, not the effect of valor, or military exertion alone, but of an enthuſiaſm, inflamed with ſuperſtition, which bore down every thing before it. An ignorant, but artful impoſtor, Mahomet, a native of this territory, had the

addreſs

addreſs to impoſe himſelf upon his countrymen as a prophet ſent immediately by God into the world, for the purpoſe, as he pretended, not only of inſtructing mankind in the divine will, but of compelling them to obey it. The reſult of the fiction exceeded his moſt ſanguine expectations. All Arabia inſtantly caught the flame of innovation, and it was ſpread in a ſhort time over a vaſt part of Europe, Aſia, and Africa; all ſects of religion were either overawed, or rendered proſelytes to the belief of the new doctrine; chriſtian churches were converted into moſques; a new æra was introduced into the hiſtory of mankind; and in the end an impoſtor, who would have merited the ſevereſt puniſhment in civiliſed ſociety, not only received in his perſon the homage of a multitude of nations, but obtained ſuch poſthumous honors as never before were conferred on any mortal; and has tranſmitted his name, with that of his ſpurious doctrines, to half the habitable world.

LETTER XL.

LEAVING Aſia on the eaſt, I entered the third grand diviſion of the globe; and it was optional to take my paſſage thither, either by ſea or land: for though the two continents now mentioned are ſeparated from each other, along the far greater part of their extent, by the Red Sea, they are joined towards the north by a neck of land, about ſixty miles over, called the Iſthmus of Suez, which lies between the extremity of that ſea and the Mediterranean.

As the equator divides this extenſive continent almoſt in the middle, and the moſt conſiderable part of it is within the tropics, the heat is in many parts almoſt inſupportable to a European; it being there increaſed by the rays of the Sun reflected from the vaſt deſerts of burning ſands. The coaſt, however,

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and banks of the rivers, ſuch as the Nile, are generally fertile ; and moſt parts of this region are inhabited, though it is far from being ſo populous as Europe or Aſia.

In many parts of Africa ſnow is generally never ſeen but on the tops of the higheſt mountains ; and the inhabitants have no conception of the poſſibility of water being congealed into the form of a ſolid ſubſtance. The moſt conſiderable rivers are the Niger and the Nile, each of which runs a prodigious courſe ; and both of them increaſing and decreaſing alike, fertilize the adjacent countries in a wonderful manner.

The greateſt mountains on the Continent are the Atlas, a ridge extending from the Atlantic Ocean as far as Egypt, and had its name from a king of Mauritania, a great lover of aſtronomy; who uſed to obſerve the ſtars from its ſummit ; on which account the poets repreſent him as bearing the heavens on his ſhoulders : The Mountains of the Moon, extending themſelves between Abyſſinia and Monomotapa, and are ſtill higher than thoſe of Atlas : Thoſe of Sierra Leone, or the Mountain of the Lions, which divide Nigritia from Guinea,

and

and extend as far as Ethiopia. Theſe were ſtyled by the ancients the Mountains of God, on account of their being ſubject to thunder and lightning.

The ſituation of Africa for commerce is extremely favorable, having a much nearer communication with Europe, Aſia, and America, than any of the other quarters has with the reſt. Yet, though ſtored with inexhauſtible treaſure, and capable, under proper improvements, of producing many luxuries as well as conveniencies, within itſelf, it ſeems to be almoſt entirely neglected, not only by the natives, but the more civilized Europeans who are ſettled in it. It is however to be hoped, that the eſtabliſhment lately made at Sierra Leone, by ſome public ſpirited men of our own country, will prove the means of improving thoſe benefits which nature has beſtowed on this continent.

Africa once contained ſeveral kingdoms and ſtates, eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth and power, and the moſt extenſive commerce. The kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia, in particular, were much celebrated; and the rich and powerful ſtate of

 Carthage,

Carthage, that once formidable rival of Rome itſelf, extended her commerce to every part of the then known world. After the reduction of theſe countries by the Romans, the natives, conſtantly plundered, and of courſe impoveriſhed, by the governors ſent from Rome, neglected trade and cultivated no more of their lands than might ſerve for their ſubſiſtence. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, in the fifth century, the north of Africa was overrun by the Vandals, who contributed ſtill more to the deſtruction of arts and ſciences; and to add to the calamity of this continent, the Saracens made a ſudden conqueſt of all the coaſts of Egypt and Barbary in the ſeventh century. Thoſe were ſucceeded by the Turks; and both being of the Mahometan religion, the profeſſors of which carried devaſtation wherever they came, the ruin of this once flouriſhing part of the world was by that means compleated.

The inhabitants of this continent, with reſpect to religion, may be divided into three claſſes, namely Pagans, Mahometans, and Chriſtians. The firſt are the moſt numerous, poſſeſſing the greateſt part of the

country

country from the Tropic of Cancer, to the Cape of Good Hope, and thoſe are generally black. The Mahometans, who from their more northern ſituation are of a tawny complexion, poſſeſs Egypt, and almoſt all of what is called the Barbary coaſt. The people of Abyſſinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, are denominated Chriſtians, but retain many Pagan and Jewiſh rites. There are many Jews in the north of Africa, who manage all the little trade that is carried on by that part of the country.

Having ſaid thus much of Africa in general, I proceed to my ſurvey of Egypt.

In April and May the air in Egypt is hot, and often infectious; and the inhabitants are almoſt blinded with drifts of ſand: but theſe evils are remedied by the riſing and overflowing of the Nile. This celebrated river, ſupplying the want of rain, of which very little falls in the country, begins to riſe when the Sun is vertical in Ethiopia, and the annual rains fall there, which happen periodically from the latter end of May to September, and ſometimes October. At the height of its flood in the Lower Egypt, which is the northern diviſion of

the country, nothing is to be ſeen in the plains but the tops of foreſts and fruit-trees, all the towns and villages being built upon eminences either natural or artificial. When the inundation of the river is at its height, the inhabitants celebrate a kind of jubilee, with all ſorts of feſtivities. The banks or mounds which confine the waters of the river are cut by the Turkiſh baſhaw, attended by the chief inhabitants of the country. The water is then laid into what they call the chalis, or grand canal, which runs through Cairo, whence it is diſtributed into cuts, for ſupplying the fields and gardens. This being done, and the waters beginning to retire, ſo great is the fertility of the ſoil, that the huſbandman has almoſt nothing to do with cultivation. He throws his wheat and barley into the ground in October and May; he turns his cattle out to graze in November; and you would be delighted with the proſpect which the face of the country preſents in about ſix weeks, in riſing corn, vegetables, and verdure of every kind. The air is perfumed with oranges, lemons, and a variety of fruits. March and April are the harveſt months.

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The Egyptian paſturage is equally prolific, moſt of the quadrupeds producing two at a time, and the ſheep four lambs in the year.

Ariſtotle informs us, that the new waters of the Nile, whether drunk, or uſed in the way of a bath, never failed to render the women fruitful; that they uſually conceived in July or Auguſt, and were delivered in April or May. According to Diodorus Siculus, they ſometimes were delivered of four children at a birth, ſometimes of ſeven. But I have not been able to find upon the ſtricteſt enquiry, that there is at preſent the ſmalleſt foundation for thoſe aſſertions. The women of Egypt, like thoſe of other countries, are delivered equally in all months of the year; nor do they ſeem any way peculiarly diſpoſed to the production of two or more children at a birth.

The country abounds in black cattle; ſo that in all ages the fleſh pots of Egypt have been well ſupplied. The Egyptian horſes are very fine: they never trot, but walk well, and gallop with great ſpeed. The breed of the aſſes is of a large kind, and upon them the Chriſtians ride: for they are

not permitted by the Turks to make uſe of any other animal; but this reſtriction is not extended to travellers. The Hippopotamus, or river horſe, an amphibious animal, reſembling an ox in its hinder parts, is common in Upper Egypt; and among various other creatures, there is in this country an ape with the head like a dog. The crocodile was formerly thought peculiar to Egypt; but there does not ſeem to be any eſſential difference between it and the alligators of India and America. The Ibis, a creature ſomewhat reſembling a duck, and which was deified by the ancient Egyptians for its deſtroying ſerpents and noxious inſects, was alſo thought peculiar to Egypt; it appears, however, that a ſpecies of them has been lately diſcovered in other parts of Africa. Oſtriches are common here, and are ſo ſtrong, that the Arabs ſometimes ride upon their backs.

Egypt is certainly at preſent not near ſo populous as formerly, owing to the oppreſſion of the inhabitants by the Turks; but they are ſtill very numerous. The deſcendants of the original Egyptians are diſtinguiſhed by the name of Coptis. In

complexion,

complexion, they are rather ſun burnt than ſwarthy or black; and are an ill looking ſlovenly people, immerſed in indolence. Their anceſtors were once chriſtians, and in general they ſtill pretend to be of that religion; but mahometaniſm is the prevailing worſhip among the natives. Thoſe who inhabit the villages and fields, at any conſiderable diſtance from the Nile, conſiſt of Arabs, or their deſcendants, who are of a deep ſwarthy complexion. They paſs their time in tending their flocks, and many of them have no fixed place of abode. The Turks who reſide in Egypt, retain all their Ottoman pride and inſolence, with the Turkiſh habit, to diſtinguiſh themſelves from the Arabs and Coptis, who dreſs very plain. The ordinary dreſs of the latter is of blue linen, with a long cloth coat, either over or under it; and their chief finery is an upper garment of white linen, and linen drawers. The Chriſtians and Arabs of the meaner ſort content themſelves with a linen or woollen wrapper, which they fold like a blanket round their body. The dreſs of the women is tawdry and unbecoming; but their cloaths are ſilk, when they can afford it;

it; and ſuch of them as are not expoſed to the ſun, have delicate complexions. All Egypt is over-run with jugglers, fortune-tellers, mountebanks, and travelling ſlight-of-hand men.

The papyrus is one of the natural curioſities of Egypt, and ſerved the ancients to write upon; but we are unacquainted with the manner in which they prepared it.—The pith of it is a nouriſhing food. The method of hatching chickens in ovens is common in Egypt, and is now practiſed in ſome parts of Europe. But I ſhall ſuſpend till my next letter the farther account of this country.

LETTER

LETTER XLI.

EGYPT abounds more with antiquities than perhaps any other part of the world; for its cities were very numerous, and remarkably ſplendid in ancient times. In many places, not only temples, but the walls of cities, built before the time of Alexander the Great, are ſtill entire, and many of their ornaments, particularly the colours of their paintings, are as freſh and vivid as when firſt laid on. Alexandria, which lies ſeveral miles weſt of the Nile, was once the emporium of all the world; and by means of the Red Sea, furniſhed Europe and great part of Aſia with the riches of India. It owes its name to the founder, Alexander the Great. It roſe upon the ruins of Tyre and Carthage, and

is famous for the light-houſe erected on the oppoſite iſland of Pharos, for the direction of mariners, deſervedly eſteemed one of the wonders of the world. All the other parts of the city were magnificent in proportion, as may be ſeen from the ruins, particularly the ciſterns and aqueducts.—Many of the materials of the old city, however, have been employed in building New Alexandria, which at preſent is a very ordinary ſea-port, known by the name of Scandaroon. Notwithſtanding the poverty, ignorance, and indolence of the inhabitants, their moſques, bagnios, and other public buildings, erected within theſe ruins, preſerve a great air of majeſty.

Near Alexandria are to be ſeen the remains of the mauſoleum of Cleopatra. It is the ſame in which ſhe had depoſited the body of Anthony, and where ſhe herſelf was likewiſe interred, in conſequence of her requeſt to Octavius Cæſar, immediately before her death. This ſtructure was begun in her own life time, and completed by the order of Cæſar. That it was very grand, we have the teſtimony of hiſtorians, and

Martial

Martial alludes to it in the following beautiful epigram.

De vipera electro inclusa.

Flentibus Heliadum ramis dum vipera serpit,
Fluxit in obstantem succina gemma feram.
Quæ dum miratur pingui se rore teneri,
Concreto riguit vincta repente gelu.
Ne tibi regali placeas, Cleopatra, sepulchro,
Vipera si tumulo nobiliore jacet.

Lib. iv. Ep. 46.

Near this spot are the foundation and stately ruins of an ancient structure, which some affirm to have been Cæsar's palace. In the neighbourhood, likewise, stands Pompey's pillar, which is a fine regular column of the Corinthian order, eighty-four feet nine inches high, and all of one stone. Including the capital and pedestal, the height of the whole is a hundred and fourteen feet.

Rosetta, or Raschid, stands twenty-five miles north-west of Alexandria, commanding a beautiful prospect of the country, or island of Delta, formed by the Nile near its mouth; and is a place of considerable trade.

The

The whole country towards Grand Cairo, is a continued ſcene of antiquities, of which the oldeſt are the moſt ſtupendous, but the more modern the moſt beautiful. Cairo, now Mairs, the preſent capital of Egypt, is a large and populous city, but diſagreeable on account of its peſtilential air, and the narrowneſs of the ſtreets. It is divided into two towns, the Old and the New, and defended by an old caſtle, the works of which are computed to be three miles in circumference. This caſtle is ſaid to have been built by the famous Saladine, about ſix hundred years ago. At the weſt end are the remains of very noble apartments, ſome of which are covered with domes, and adorned with pictures in moſaic work. The well, called Joſeph's well, is a curious piece of mechaniſm, about three hundred feet deep. You muſt know that the memory of that Patriarch is ſtill revered in Egypt; they ſhew granaries, and many other works of public utility, that go under his name. They are certainly of great antiquity; but whether they have been erected by him may ſtill be matter of doubt. On the banks of the Nile, facing

Cairo,

Cairo, lies the village of Gizie, which is thought to be the ancient Memphis.

A favorite exhibition in this part of the country, is dancing camels, which, when young, they place upon a large heated floor: the intenſe heat makes the poor creatures caper; and being plied all the time with the beating of drums, the ſound of that inſtrument ſets them a dancing all their lives after.

But what afforded more gratification to my taſte, was the opportunity I had of ſeeing the ſiſtrum, a muſical inſtrument anciently uſed at the Egyptian ſacrifices; and with which Virgil makes Cleopatra aſſemble her troops at the battle of Actium.

Regina in mediis patrio vocat agmire ſiſtro.

It is an iron hoop of an oval form, about four inches long, through which run three moveable croſs bars of the ſame metal. It has a wooden handle; ſomewhat reſembles a gridiron, and makes a rattling noiſe on being ſhaken.

The other towns of note in Egypt are Damietta, ſuppoſed to be the ancient Peluſium;

ſium; Bulac, where they cut the banks of the Nile every year, that it may fill their canals; Seyd, on the weſt bank of the Nile, two hundred miles ſouth of Cairo, ſaid to be the ancient Egyptian Thebes, where are ſtill many remains of antiquity.

Would not the greater part of mankind be apt to queſtion my veracity, when I affirm, that I have really ſeen ſeveral perſons, who, if they did not precede the age of Solomon, may have been at leaſt his contemporaries? You will readily underſtand that I mean mummies, which I have ſeen taken from the catacombs of Egypt. There are ſubterraneous vaults hewn in the rock, and uſed by the ancients for burial places. They conſiſt of a vaſt number of apartments, communicating with each other, and extending to a very great diſtance under ground. Round every apartment run three ranges of niches, all large enough to contain a coffin. The rock in which they are hewn being ſoft, many of the apartments are in ruins. At the entrance are ſtill ſome remains of ſteps cut in the rock; and it is not doubted but theſe places were formerly very magnificent.

The

The bodies which I have ſeen are painted with hieroglyphical figures, and were preſerved in caſes made of the ſycamore tree, a ſort of wood as durable as themſelves. Near them, in the catacombs, were ſeveral of the birds Ibis, embalmed in earthen pots. Vaſt antiquity, of itſelf, is apt to excite in the mind ſome degree of veneration; but this is perhaps more particularly due to the inhabitants of the catacombs than to any other natural objects, when we conſider that they have paſſed the ſolemn and impartial trial after death, from which even thoſe of the higheſt quality in Egypt were not exempted; by which their actions and characters were fully canvaſſed and approved, before they could be allowed interment. Indeed there is reaſon to think, that this ſcrutiny was not carried with ſo much rigor into the private ſcenes of life, as in the more public ſteps of conduct, which might affect the welfare of the community.

The art of embalming among the ancient Egyptians has been very imperfectly tranſmitted by hiſtorians. It is doubtleſs more a matter of curioſity than uſe. From the blackneſs of the bones, however, and the

 pitchy

pitchy ſubſtance found within them, it would ſeem to have conſiſted in boiling the body in pitch, after having embowelled it, and extracted the brains through the noſe, as Herodotus informs us.

The practice of embalming was originally founded on the opinion, that after a certain number of years, the ſoul ſhould be re-united to the body. Whether ſuch practice could really have any influence on the morals of the Egyptians, by keeping in remembrance the virtues of their anceſtors, as ſome have imagined, is not eaſy to determine. Perhaps we have attributed to that cuſtom an effect, which proceeded only from the principle on which the cuſtom was founded. It is probable that the greateſt advantage which the ſtate derived from its dead, was in relation to commerce. For by a law of Aſychis, it was enacted, that no perſon ſhould borrow money without pawning the body of his anceſtor, which it was reckoned the greateſt infamy not to redeem. But, whatever effect it might have had on the virtue of individuals, I am inclined to think, that, from the eſteem in which it was held, the cuſtom of embalming

ing muſt, upon the whole, have had a very pernicious influence on their national courage. For they would not readily expoſe their bodies to danger, who were ſo ambitious of preſerving them as entire as poſſible, till the time they expected the reſurrection. And in fact we find, that never any people were ſo often, or ſo eaſily conquered as the Egyptians. They regarded the dwellings of the living as inns, which were intended to accommodate them for a ſhort ſpace of time only, while they called the manſions of the dead their houſes, which they were to poſſeſs for a long revolution of ages; and provided they enjoyed the ſecurity of the latter, they were little diſpoſed to defend the former.

The lake Mæris in Egypt is likewiſe a prodigious excavation; and of all the ancient wonders in this country, it ſeems to have been the only one which united utility with grandeur: for we are told that it was dug by order of an Egyptian king, to correct the irregularities of the Nile, and to communicate with that river by canals and ditches which ſtill exiſt.

Adjoining to it, was the celebrated labyrinth, which contained twelve magnificent palaces, anſwering to the twelve provinces of Egypt. In each of them was a vaſt hall, with an equal number of doors oppoſite to each other; ſix opening to the north, and as many to the ſouth. The number of chambers in this edifice was three thouſand; in the lowermoſt of which were the ſepulchres of the holy crocodiles, and of ſeveral of the kings. But what was more aſtoniſhing than its prodigious magnitude, was the intricacy which prevailed through the whole. The paſſages between the chambers ran in directions ſo extremely various, that by nothing but ſuch an expedient as the clue of Ariadne was it poſſible to unravel them.

LETTER

LETTER XLII.

HAVING in my laſt letter made mention of the "Holy Crocodiles," I cannot refrain from expreſſing my ſurpriſe, at the abſurd veneration which was paid by the ancient Egyptians to that animal, as well as to ſeveral others, as the cat, the dog, the hawk, and the ibis. Particular lands were appropriated for the maintenance of each ſpecies; and the care of feeding and attending them was accounted the moſt honorable employment in the kingdom. To thoſe animals the inhabitants ſolemnly offered up their prayers; and with ſuch profuſion were thoſe ridiculous deities entertained, that by one man, who had the care of a number of them, no leſs, we are told by Diodorus Siculus, than a hundred talents were expended. They were kept in conſecrated incloſures, where their victuals

consisted of the greatest dainties. The most usual food was the finest flour boiled in milk; cakes of several sorts made with honey; and the flesh of geese either boiled or roasted. Those which fed on raw meat were supplied with birds of different kinds.

The conduct of the Egyptians in the maintenance of their animals and of their own children, displayed a remarkable contrast. For while they lavished such exorbitant sums on the former, the latter were fed and cloathed at so small an expence, that from birth to the age of manhood, a boy seldom cost his father more than twenty drachms, or about thirteen shillings. They went for the most part naked; and their usual diet consisted of the stalks and roots of the plants which grow in the marshes. This frugal manner in which they brought up their children was probably one great cause of the populousness of Egypt.

My progress now leads me to give you an account of the Egyptian pyramids, which have been the wonder of the world for upwards of three thousand years.

The

The greateſt of theſe pyramids are three in number, and are ſituated in the neighbourhood of the ancient Memphis. The largeſt ſtands on a rock hewn in the form of a camel's back, about ſixty feet high, and traverſes obliquely the baſe of the pyramid from north to ſouth. The baſe is an exact ſquare, each ſide meaſuring ſix hundred and ninety three Engliſh feet. The four ſides face the four cardinal points, and the entrance is on the north. The perpendicular altitude of this ſtupendous ſtructure is five hundred feet, and the length of its incloſed plain ſix hundred and ſeventy feet. The pile is aſcended on the outſide, not by regular ſteps, there being none, but by the ſtones of the building, the great thickneſs of which renders the journey exceedingly troubleſome. The top is covered with ſix ſtones, each about ſix feet in length, but with an interval between each, which would require ſix other ſtones of equal dimenſions to fill up. This circumſtance gives riſe to a conjecture, either that the pyramid never was completely finiſhed, or that ſome attempt had been made to pull it down. The pyramid is entered by a nar-

row

row aperture a little above the level of the baſe. But before a traveller attempts to gratify his curioſity by ſuch an adventure, it is neceſſary to diſcharge ſome piſtols, to frighten away the owls, bats, ſnakes, and other reptiles harbouring here, and which, on thoſe exploſions, haſten away to their lurking places.

I ſhall not detain you with a minute account of the internal arrangements, but only inform you, in general, that, after a deſcent of ſeveral feet, you aſcend through two narrow paſſages, one of which is eighty four feet in length, and the other ninety-ſix. This leads into a gallery of poliſhed marble, the height of which is twenty-two feet and a half above the pavement; whence you paſs into a magnificent chamber, built of Thebaic marble, thirty-ſix feet in length, eighteen in breadth, and the ſame in height. In this apartment is a marble cheſt, but without either cover or contents, ſuppoſed to have been deſigned for the tomb of the founder. Aſcending ſtill higher, through a paſſage of a hundred and thirteen feet in length, you come to another large apartment, the ſmell of which is extremely offenſive,

fenſive, and doubtleſs ariſes from the ordure of the multitudes of vermin which infeſt this place.

About a mile from this ſtructure ſtands the ſecond pyramid, which appears to have been covered with marble, but hitherto the entrance of it has not been diſcovered. It is, except on the ſouth ſide, well preſerved, having neither chaſms nor fiſſures; and from its ſurface being every where ſmooth and even, there is no poſſibility of aſcending it. Not far thence is another pyramid, but ſomething leſs than the preceding: and at ſome diſtance in the deſert, ſeveral others of inferior dimenſions.

Different accounts are delivered by authors, reſpecting the building and object of theſe wonderful ſtructures. Pliny affirms that they were built for oſtentation, or to keep an idle people in employment; but others, that they were deſtined for the ſepulchres of Egyptian Kings; and this is the more general opinion. Joſephus tells us that the Egyptians compelled the Iſraelites to build them; but Herodotus aſcribes the firſt and largeſt pyramid to king Cheops, who flouriſhed after the Trojan war; and adds

adds, that this king began the building of it, in order to find employment for his subjects; that it was built of stones dug from quarries in the mountains of Arabia, brought thither by vessels on the Nile; and that above a hundred thousand persons were employed, thirty thousand every month. Diodorus Siculus calls the founder of this pyramid Chemmis; but agrees with Herodotus, with regard to time, though he increases the workmen to three hundred and sixty thousand; and both agree with Pliny, that it was twenty years in building.

With regard to the second pyramid, both Herodotus and Diodorus Siculus make the founder to have been Cephrenes, brother to Cheops, or Chemmis. The third is generally ascribed to king Mycerinus, the second son of Chemmis; though others alledge that it was built by Rhodope, a favorite concubine of king Amasis.

There is the same difference between writers, in respect of the great pyramid, whether it was ever completed. Most of them maintain the negative, as several stones are wanting at the top: nor does it appear to have been ever covered with marble,

marble, like the ſecond. It is added, that this pyramid being built by Cheops, one of the moſt tyrannical kings of Egypt, the inhabitants would neither ſuffer the pyramid to be completed, nor his body depoſited in it; it being the general opinion, as already mentioned, that the pyramids were intended for ſepulchres.

Others on the contrary affirm, that this pyramid was completely finiſhed; but that afterwards attempts were made to demoliſh it: and accordingly the marble with which it was covered, was taken off, and the ſtones, which ſeem to be wanting at the top, were thrown down. It is certain that ſeveral modern princes have formed deſigns of demoliſhing it. Even in the year 1580, Ibrahim Paſcha intended to blow it up with gun-powder, imagining that he ſhould find among the ruins immenſe treaſures. But Georgio Emo, then conſul from the republic of Venice, at Cairo, diverted him from his project; convincing him, that the exploſion of ſo large a quantity of gunpowder as would be requiſite for that purpoſe, and the fragments of ſtones which would be violently projected from the ſtructure,

ture, would demoliſh at leaſt the greater part of Cairo, and at the ſame time, deſtroy multitudes of people.

That the ſtones for building the pyramids were brought from ſo great a diſtance as is related by Herodotus, notwithſtanding the great extravagance, and aſtoniſhing undertakings of the Egyptian kings, ſeems extremely improbable, as they might be ſupplied with thoſe materials in the neighbourhood of the pyramids; and in fact, the quarries adjoining them diſcover ſo much the ſpecific marks and characteriſtics of the pyramidal ſtones, that they are not to be diſtinguiſhed from them. On the whole, the pyramids of Egypt are the moſt ſtupendous, and, to appearance, the moſt uſeleſs ſtructures, that ever were created by the hands of men.

Near theſe pyramids, on the weſt bank of the Nile, is to be ſeen the famous Sphinx, which conſiſts of the head and ſhoulders of a woman, cut out of the rock, and is forty feet in height. There were anciently many of theſe ſphinxes on the banks of the Nile; they were ſymbolical figures, with the head of a woman and the body of a lion, ſignifying

ſignifying, that the Nile began to ſwell in the months of July and Auguſt, when the Sun paſſes through the ſigns of Leo and Virgo. One of them in particular, cut out of a rock, was remarkable for its prodigious dimenſions. According to Pliny, the body was a hundred and forty-three feet in length, well proportioned; and the circumference of the head a hundred and two feet.

LETTER XLIII.

THOUGH it is generally admitted, that the Greeks derived the rudiments of ſcience from the ancient Egyptians, and that Thales and many other philoſophers viſited Egypt for improvement in knowledge, yet there ſcarcely remains a veſtige of it among the preſent inhabitants of the country. The bigotry and ignorance of their Mahometan maſters might be ſufficient to produce this change; which however, was effected many ages ago. The Caliphs, or Saracens, who ſubdued Egypt were of three kinds. The firſt, who were the immediate ſucceſſors of Mahomet, made war from principle upon all kinds of literature, excepting the koran; and to this it was owing, that when they took poſſeſſion of Alexandria, which

which contained the moſt magnificent library the world ever beheld, its valuable manuſcripts were applied for ſome months in cooking their victuals, and warming their baths. The ſame fate attended the other magnificent Egyptian libraries. The caliphs of the ſecond race were men of taſte and learning, but of a peculiar ſtrain. They bought up all the manuſcripts that ſurvived the general conflagration, relating to aſtronomy, medicine, and ſome uſeful parts of philoſophy, but they had no taſte for the Greek arts of architecture, ſculpture, painting, or poetry; and learning was confined to their own courts and colleges, without ever finding its way back to Egypt. The lower claſs of Caliphs, eſpecially thoſe who called themſelves caliphs of Egypt, diſgraced human nature; and the Turks have rivetted the chains of barbarous ignorance which they impoſed.

But we ought not to confound the ſtate of learning in Egypt, at the deſtruction of the Alexandrian library, with that in which it exiſted in the time of Thales and other Grecian Philoſophers who had viſited that country. For the Alexandrian library contained

tained not only the Egyptian literature, but that likewiſe of the Greeks and Romans, which probably formed the moſt valuable part of the collection. Notwithſtanding the reputation of learning, which the ancient Egyptians had acquired, there is no ſatisfactory evidence of their having made much progreſs in any uſeful reſearch. Geometry was the only ſcience which they appear to have underſtood in any tolerable degree. For, though they made obſervations on the ſtars, they were ignorant of thoſe principles which are indiſpenſible for erecting a ſcientific ſyſtem of aſtronomy. And in the knowledge of any additional ſcience, if we except the viſionary docrines in which they rivalled the Chaldeans; they were equally deficient with other nations.

One circumſtance was peculiar to the Egyptians, and, if I miſtake not, proved the cauſe of that celebrity which they univerſally obtained. The prieſts, beſide the common alphabet uſed in the ordinary affairs of life, had, as we are informed by Herodotus, a ſymbolical character appropriated to ſubjects of ſcience. This being

a hereditary poſſeſſion in their families, and acceſſible only to the prieſthood, it furniſhed them with the means not only of concealing from the world the knowledge which they had really acquired, but of impoſing upon mankind by a fallacious diſplay of learning which had no foundation.—The pretenſions to knowledge could not be diſproved which were never ſubmitted to inveſtigation; and ignorance might ſafely bid defiance to detection, when the veil of myſtery within which it lay concealed was impenetrable.

Under the management of the moſt learned of the prieſthood, this boaſted ſymbolical character was abſolutely incapable of accommodation to the purpoſes of ſcience. For, admitting that the repreſentation which it afforded of ideas was not both too arbitary and ambiguous to be univerſally intelligible in any definite ſignification, yet the language muſt have been extremely circumſcribed, which afforded no expreſſion for any other ideas than ſuch as could be repreſented by the pictures of material objects, numerous as they might be to any native of the moſt extenſive ob-

ſervation in Egypt. Such a character, ſo far from being uſeful, was utterly inadequate to every exigence of preciſion. It could neither mark the copulation nor diſjunction of ideas. It could expreſs neither prepoſitive nor adverbial ſignification. In a word, it was incapable of deſcribing any determinate relations of ideas, and could never attempt to delineate the abſtract evolutions of ſentiment.

To what purpoſe then, it may be aſked, did the Egyptian prieſts make uſe of this ſymbolical character? The anſwer is obvious: they uſed it for the purpoſe of that prieſtcraft which in thoſe times, univerſally diſgraced the principles of men who ſubſiſted by popular ſuperſtition. To this I will add another reaſon. The Egyptians were always addicted to oſtentation of myſtery: they excited the aſtoniſhment of the world by their pyramids, which, though built as royal ſepulchres, never included the aſhes of any king; and they affected to conſtruct a language, which notwithſtanding its arrogated ſuperiority, contained not a tittle of any ſcience.

The polity of the ancient Egyptians has been no leſs the object of admiration than the ſuppoſed learning of the prieſthood; but I think the excellence of their conſtitution has been greatly exaggerated.— Perhaps the moſt ſalutary of all their laws was that which related to the celebrated trial of the dead. But admitting that this practice had actually a beneficial influence on the morals of the people, the inſtitution of it proceeded not ſo much from any ſuperior legiſlative wiſdom, as from the univerſal prejudice of the nation. The greateſt ambition amongſt them was, that their bodies ſhould be preſerved as entire as poſſible to the end of the world; and nothing therefore could offer greater violence to their fondeſt hope, than to be denied the privilege of interment.

But in my opinion, this ſingular mode of trial is a ſtrong proof that the adminiſtration of criminal juſtice in Egypt was extremely imperfect. If men had committed crimes for which it could be deemed proper to deprive them of what the Egyptians held as the moſt valuable of all human privileges, why were they not brought to a

legal trial? Was it consistent with common justice that men should be condemned upon any accusation when they could not be heard in their own defence? Or was it equitable to punish with eternal infamy, offences which had not been thought of sufficient magnitude to justify the immediate cognizance of the laws? In every light in which this trial can be viewed, I must consider it as an absurd violation of the most sacred rights of mankind, and the resource of a legislature indisputably feeble and capricious.

But if the enforcement of morality amongst the Egyptians required such an institution as was unknown to any other people, the necessity of that restraint affords a strong presumption that their polity was defective in other parts. I am well supported by the evidence of history when I affirm, that no nation was ever less exposed than Egypt to the perpetration of those crimes which prove most injurious to society. The extreme fertility of the land, and the simplicity of cloathing, precluded the usual temptations to rapine and theft; whilst the unlimited number of wives in which

which men were indulged, and the general practice of early marriage, equally tended to prevent the unlawful commerce of the sexes. If in such a situation, therefore, the Egyptians required the most forcible inducement to moral conduct, to what principle in their natural or political constitution ought we to ascribe this necessity? They were not more disposed to voluptuousness from the temperature of the climate than the inhabitants of many other countries. On this subject, there is some reason to suspect, that the morals of Egypt were corrupted by a cause which has generally been considered as productive of salutary effects. I mean the practice of introducing the figure of a dead person at entertainments. That the object of this custom was to promote, and not restrain festivity, or rather intoxication, is evident from the words with which the ceremony, as Herodotus relates, was accompanied: "Look upon this, and be merry; for such as this is, shalt thou be when thou art dead;" and it is further confirmed by the acknowledged intemperance to which the practice was rendered subservient. We are told by the

authority, that the Egyptians were remarkably addicted to drinking; and that they ate every night of boiled cabbage, as a preparative for the greater indulgence of their favorite vice.

In ſubjecting men to the employment of the diſtaff, and other domeſtic offices, whilſt the women alone performed all buſineſs without doors, the polity of Egypt was a direct inverſion of nature. By this prepoſterous cuſtom the men became ſo effeminate, that they were ſhamefully vanquiſhed by an inferior army of Perſians, and indeed became the prey of every ſubſequent enemy who invaded them. It is ſaid of Seſoſtris that he erected in Syria ſeveral ſtones, bearing upon them a repreſentation of the private parts of a woman, as a reproach on the imbecility of his enemies; but one might almoſt be induced to ſuſpect an error in hiſtory, which has converted into a ſarcaſm on foreign nations what was meant as a memorial of female valor; that the victories of this celebrated prince were obtained not by men, but the women of Egypt.

The

The cuſtom of all trades being hereditary was alſo liable to ſtrong objections. Though it ſuited œconomy, and ſeemed to favor proficiency in the various arts, it ſupported a reſtraint detrimental to the efforts of genius, and placed thouſands of people in ſituations for which they were unqualified by nature.

When I conſider all theſe circumſtances, and the rude ſeverity of the Egyptian puniſhments, I ſhall never admit, notwithſtanding the claims of this people to high antiquity, that they afforded any example of that political wiſdom which diſtinguiſhed, in all other countries, the periods of refined civilization.

Their religion was the moſt odious maſs of ſuperſtition ever invented by the human mind. Excluſive of geometry, and ſome aſtronomical obſervations, their learning, with all its oſtentation, I affirm it, was but ignorance in diſguiſe; and their polity, their boaſted polity, had its foundations in extravagant caprice. The Egyptians neverthleleſs have had the peculiar fortune not only to impoſe upon contem-

porary

porary nations, but even to be venerated by poſterity. That eternity which they wiſhed with ardor to their own natural bodies, they have ſecured to the fame of their country. The wiſdom of the Egyptians has been echoed from age to age. It is a mighty name, like the pyramids of the nation, but is in fact no more than a name; and I ſhall now ſuggeſt to you the means by which it aroſe.

Great populouſneſs, and facility of ſubſiſtence have ever been regarded as the ſureſt ſigns of a flouriſhing nation. Theſe objects, being in general, attainable only by wiſe regulations of government, the countries in which they are moſt conſpicuous are therefore ſuppoſed to enjoy a happy ſyſtem of polity. Egypt was remarkable both for populouſneſs and plenty of proviſions: on which account it acquired the reputation of tranſcendant excellence in reſpect of its cuſtoms and municipal laws. But the inference which in all other caſes was juſt, coincided not with truth when applied to the particular circumſtances of Egypt.

This

This kingdom was indebted for its great prosperity to the annual inundation of the Nile; and the beneficial effects which proceeded entirely from this cause, were erroneously ascribed by inattentive observers to the superior polity of Egypt.

LETTER

LETTER XLIV.

THE next and laſt object of my ſurvey, is the States of Barbary, which conſiſt of thoſe countries in Africa that lie on the coaſt of the Mediterranean ſea. Theſe States, under the Roman empire, were juſtly denominated the garden of the world. The produce of their ſoil formed the magazines which furniſhed all Italy, and great part of the Roman empire, with corn, wine, and oil. Though the lands are now uncultivated, through the oppreſſion and barbarity of their government, yet they are ſtill fertile, not only in the abovementioned commodities, but in dates, figs, raiſins, almonds, apples, oranges, and other fruits, with plenty of eſculent roots and herbs. In ſhort, the country abounds in all that can add to the pleaſures and conveniences

niences of life. Neither the elephant nor rhinoceros are to be found in the States of Barbary; but their deſerts abound with lions, tygers, leopards, hyænas, and monſtrous ſerpents. The Barbary horſes were formerly very valuable, but their breed is now not equally good. Among their beaſts of burden, which are camels, dromedaries, aſſes, and mules, there is a ſpecies called kumrahs, a ſervicable creature, begot by an aſs upon a cow. Their cows are but ſmall, and the quantity of milk they give ſcarcely proportioned to their ſize. Their ſheep yield indifferent fleeces, but are very large, as are their goats. Bears, porcupines, foxes, aſſes, hares, rabbits, and all kinds of reptiles are found here; as are likewiſe partridges, eagles, hawks, and wild fowl of various kinds. Vermin, however, is frequent in this country; and ſeldom a night paſſes but one's repoſe is interrupted by the bite or ſting of the ſcorpion, the viper, or the venemous ſpider. The ſeas and bays of Barbary abound with the fineſt and moſt delicious fiſh of every kind, which were preferred by the ancients to thoſe of Europe.

Having

Having here had an opportunity of seeing the ſalamander, that famous creature which is ſaid by the ancients to live in the midſt of fire, I was extremely deſirous of bringing the fact to the teſt of experiment. Ariſtotle tells us, that it not only lives amidſt fire, but even extinguiſhes that element. The truth is, that on being laid upon the fire, there flows from between its ſcales a watery liquid, which at firſt produces, in ſome degree, that effect; but after this moiſture is diſſipated, the ſalamander is no longer capable of reſiſting the force of fire.

The territory of Tripoli was once the richeſt, and moſt populous of all the ſtates on the coaſt, but it is now much reduced; though the inhabitants are ſtill computed to amount to between four and five hundred thouſand. The city of Tripoli conſiſts of an old and a new town, the latter of which is the more flouriſhing, but great inconveniences attend its ſituation, particularly the want of ſweet water. The city of Oran, lying upon the coaſt, is about a mile and a half in circumference, and

well

well fortified, but commanded by the neighbouring hills

Proceeding weſtward, we come to the kingdom of Tunis, which is the moſt poliſhed of all the Barbary States, and contains the remains of many noble cities, ſome of them ſtill in good condition. The capital contains about ten thouſand families, and above three thouſand tradeſmens ſhops.—Though the men here be ſun burnt, the complexion of the women is very delicate, nor are they leſs neat and elegant in their dreſs; but they improve the beauty of their eyes by art, particularly the powder of lead-ore; ſuppoſed to be the ſame pigment that Jezebel made uſe of, when ſhe is ſaid to have painted her face: the words of the original being, that ſhe ſet off her eyes with the powder of lead-ore. The better ſort of inhabitants, in general, are ſober, orderly, and clean in their perſons, their behaviour genteel and complaiſant, and a wonderful regularity prevails through the whole town. The Dey of Tunis is an abſolute prince, elected by the Turkiſh ſoldiers; but his reign is very precarious, and ſeldom of long duration; depending entirely upon

the caprice of that body, who are generally composed of renegadoes, pirates, and the very refuse of mankind.

Westward of Tunis, lies the territory of Algiers, which though tributary to the Grand Signior, is likewise governed by a Dey, elected by the soldiers, by whom he is often deposed, or put to death, upon the most frivolous pretext. The capital of that territory stands on the side of a hill rising gradually from the shore. It is computed to contain upwards of a hundred thousand inhabitants, among whom are fifteen thousand Jews, and two thousand Christian slaves. The environs of the town are adorned with gardens and fine villas, where the many fountains and rivulets are no small addition to the pleasure of the inhabitants, who resort thither in the hot seasons.

None of the gardens here are laid out with any degree of regularity, the whole being a confused mixture of trees, with beds of cabbages, turnips, beans, garvancos, &c. nay sometimes of wheat and barley dispersed amongst them. The soil is for the most part of a loose and yielding nature,

ture, in ſome places black, and in others inclining to red; but both kinds are equally fruitful, and impregnated with great quantities of ſalt and nitre. The banks of ſeveral rivers, to the depth ſometimes of two or three fathoms, are ſtudded in the ſummer with nitrous and ſaline particles and exudations. To this ſtrong impregnation of ſalt, we may with juſtice attribute the great fertility for which this country has ever been ſo remarkable, without any other manuring than the burning of the ſtubble in a few places. It is however extraordinary, that the province of Briacium, which was formerly in ſo much repute for the richneſs of the ſoil, is at preſent the moſt barren and unprofitable part of thoſe kingdoms.

The ſalt pits of Arzew are encloſed with mountains, encompaſſing an area of about ſix miles. The pits appear in winter like a lake, but are dry in ſummer, the water being then exhaled, and the ſalt left behind chryſtallized. In digging, ſeveral different layers of this ſalt are diſcovered, ſome of which are an inch, and others more in thickneſs. The whole area con-

ſiſts

fifts of a fucceffion of fimilar ftrata; and in the fame manner are the faline pits between Carthage and the Guletta, thofe of the Shott, and other places in this quarter.

Jebbel Had-Deffa is entirely a mountain of falt, fituated near the eaftern extremity of the lake of Marks. The falt here is of a different quality and appearance from that of the falt-pits, being as hard and folid as ftone, and of a reddifh or purple colour. Yet what is wafhed down from thofe precipices by the dews, becomes perfectly white, and lofes the bitternefs it originally poffeffed in the rock. The falt in the mountains near Lwotaiah and Jebbel-Minifs, is of a blueifh or grey colour, and without undergoing the like accidental purification as at Had-Deffa, is very agreeable to the palate.

This country abounds likewife in hot and fulphureous fprings. In fome of thofe, the waters are little more than luke-warm, others are of a greater heat, and very proper to bathe in, whilft the Hamman-Mefkonteen, and the upper fpring at Mercega are much too hot for that purpofe; the former

mer boiling a large piece of mutton very tender in a quarter of an hour.

Besides the hot mineral effluvia that are constantly discharged by the Thermæ, there remains below the surface an inexhaustible fund of sulphur, nitre, and other inflammable bodies, which frequently prove the cause of local earthquakes in different parts of the country.

Morocco is the most westerly of the States on the Barbary coast, and has the title of an empire; to the crown of which is now united the territory of Fez. The country is not now so populous as formerly; and the Emperor is said to maintain eighty thousand horse and foot of foreign negroes in his armies. The crown is considered as hereditary, but if there be more sons than one, they usually fight for the dominion, on the decease of their father, till only one of them survives. The Emperor is not immediately subject to the Porte, yet he acknowledges the Grand Signior to be his superior, and he pays him a distant allegiance as the chief representative of Mahomet.

Besides the above towns and cities, many others, formerly of great renown, lie scattered in the various parts of this immense tract of country. The city of Fez, at present the capital of Morocco, is said to contain near three hundred thousand inhabitants. Its mosques amount to five hundred; one of them magnificent beyond description, and about a mile and a half in circumference. Maquinez is now esteemed the great emporium of Barbary. Sallee was formerly famous for the piracies of its inhabitants. Tangier was the capital of the ancient Mauritania Tangitana, and is situated two miles within the straits of Gibraltar. This place was given by the crown of Portugal as part of the dowry of Queen Catherine, consort of Charles the Second, to England; and it must have been an important acquisition, had it remained in the hands of the British nation: but the misunderstanding which subsisted between the King and his parliament, not permitting the King to support the charge of maintaining its fortifications, he was induced to blow them up, and demolish its harbour; so that from being one of the finest cities in Africa,

it

it is now little better than a fiſhing town. Ceuta, up the ſame ſtrait, almoſt oppoſite to Gibraltar, is in the hands of the Spaniards, but often, if not always, beſieged or blocked up by the Moors.

The eſtabliſhed religion of all the Barbary States is the Mahometan; but many ſubjects of Morocco follow the tenets of one Hamed, a modern ſectary, and an enemy to the ancient doctrine of the Caliphs. All the northern coaſts of Africa, as well as Egypt, are fond of ideots; and in ſome caſes their protection ſcreens offenders from puniſhments, for the moſt notorious crimes.

There are in theſe countries many curious remains of antiquity, but lying ſcattered amidſt ignorant and barbarous inhabitants, they are difficult of acceſs. Some veſtiges of the Mauritanian and Numidian greatneſs are ſtill to be met with, and many ruins which bear evidence of their ancient grandeur and populouſneſs. Theſe point out the old Julia Cæſarea of the Romans, which was little inferior in magnificence to Carthage itſelf. A few of the extenſive aqueducts of Carthage ſtill remain, but no

veſtiges of its walls. The ſame is the fate of Utica, and many other renowned cities of antiquity; for ſuch is the barbariſm of the preſent inhabitants, that the very ſites of thoſe places are not known, even by their ruins, amphitheatres, and other public buildings, which remain ſtill in tolerable preſervation. Beſides thoſe of claſſical antiquity, many Saracen monuments, of the moſt ſtupendous magnificence, are likewiſe found in this vaſt tract. The walls of them form the principal fortifications of the country, both inland and maritime.

When Rome was miſtreſs of the world, the States of Barbary formed the faireſt jewels in the Imperial diadem, but their ſplendor, power, and glory, have long ſince been extinguiſhed. And though the Carthaginians, who inhabited this country, had greater fleets and a more extenſive commerce, than any other nation, or than all the people upon the face of the earth, when that ſtate flouriſhed, yet the preſent inhabitants have ſcarcely any merchant ſhips belonging to them, or indeed any other than what are fitted out for piracy. Nothing can afford a more convincing proof

proof of the pernicious effects of continual oppression, and frequent anarchy, on the interests and exertions of men; tearing up by the roots every motive to industry and commerce, which alone constitute the political prosperity of nations.

This part of Africa was doubtless peopled from Asia, from which it is separated only by the Isthmus of Suez and the Red Sea; but the Phœnicians or inhabitants of Tyre seem to have preceded all other nations in sending hither colonies. The first town they built on the Barbary coast was Utica, afterwards called Byserta; near which runs the river Bagarda or Bagrada, where we are informed that Atilius Regulus, and his whole army, attacked with warlike engines, and slew a serpent, which measured a hundred and twenty feet in length.

Carthage is supposed to have been built much later than Utica, namely, in the year of the world 3120, before the building of Rome a hundred and thirty-five years, and eight hundred and eighty-three before the birth of Christ. At this time, it is probable, the territory of Carthage was comprehended within very narrow limits, till gradually increasing

increaſing in power by the great extent of their commerce, the inhabitants ſtretched their dominion as far as the Atlantic Ocean.

According to the deſcription of Carthage by ancient writers, it was ſituated on three hills in a peninſula, almoſt ſurrounded by the ſea. It meaſured in circumference twenty-two miles, and contained two harbours within its works; one for men of war, and the other for merchant veſſels.—On the Iſthmus ſtood the citadel, called Byrſa, defended by a triple wall, and towers at proper diſtances. The walls were two ſtories high, built upon arches. In the lower arches, were kept three hundred elephants, with their proviſions and warlike accoutrements; and in the upper arches were ſtore-houſes and ſtables for four thouſand horſe, and barracks for twenty thouſand foot. When the Romans inveſted the city, it contained ſeven hundred thouſand ſouls; and there was found in it four hundred and ſeventy thouſand pound weight of ſilver, beſides what was plundered by the private ſoldiers, and buried in the ruins.

The religion of the Carthaginians appears to have been the ſame with that of the

Canaanites

Canaanites or Phœnicians, from whom they deſcended. That they worſhipped a multitude of deities is obvious from the preamble of a treaty concluded between them and Philip of Macedon, reciting that the compact was made in the preſence of Jupiter, Juno, and Apollo; in the preſence of the dæmon or genius of Carthage; in the preſence of Hercules, Mars, and Neptune, and all the confederate gods of Carthage; in the preſence of the ſun, moon, earth, rivers, meadows, &c. The gods which they chiefly invoked, however, were the moon (called Cœleſtis, and ſometimes Urania) and Saturn, named Moloch in ſacred hiſtory. To the latter they ſacrificed their children, ſometimes burning them in a brazen ſtatue of Saturn, heated for that purpoſe; ſounding at the ſame time drums and trumpets, that the cries of the victims might not be heard. It was conſidered as a meritorious piece of heroiſm in their mothers to aſſiſt at thoſe ſacrifices with dry eyes, and without the leaſt ſymptoms of regret, the offering not being thought acceptable to Saturn, if made with any reluctance. But as the moſt violent ſuperſtition could not

not perfectly reconcile their minds to the horror of thoſe unnatural rites, they were uſually contented with making their children paſs through the fire; in which their miſerable offspring frequently periſhed.— In great calamities, however, they actually burnt them, chooſing for this purpoſe the moſt beautiful and nobleſt youths of the nation; and on thoſe occaſions, they have ſacrificed children to their deity from morning till night.

Some laudable attempts have lately been made by a ſociety in London, towards exploring the ſtate of the interior parts of Africa; and there is reaſon to expect that important diſcoveries may be made by the proſecution of this plan. At preſent, however, our acquaintance with the more ſouthern tracts of Africa, extends only to thoſe parts where ſettlements have been eſtabliſhed by different European Powers. We are ignorant not only of the bounds, but even of the names, of ſeveral inland countries. In many material circumſtances, the inhabitants of this extenſive continent agree with each other. If we except the people of Abyſſinia, who are tawney and profeſs

profeſs a mixture of Chriſtianity, Judaiſm, and Paganiſm, they are all of a black complexion. In their religion, except on the coaſts, which have been viſited by ſtrangers, they are Pagans; and the form of government is every where monarchical. Few princes, however, poſſeſs an extenſive juriſdiction; for as the natives of this part of Africa are groſſly ignorant in all the arts of utility and refinement, they are little acquainted with one another, and generally united in ſmall aſſociations, each governed by its own prince. In Abyſſinia, indeed, and ſome other parts, we are told of powerful monarchs; but it appears, on examination, that the authority of theſe princes ſtands on a very precarious foundation. In the ſucceſſion to the throne, force generally prevails over right, and an uncle, a brother, or other collateral relation, is on this account commonly preferred to the lineal deſcendants, whether male or female.

In a country ſo prodigiouſly extenſive, it might be expected that there was a great and regular variation of fertility in the different climates; but in fact, there is neither gradation nor medium in this part of Africa,

with regard to the quantity of vegetable produce; and the ground is either perfectly barren, or extremely fertile. This ariſes from the intenſe heat of the ſun, which, where it meets with ſufficient moiſture, produces the utmoſt luxuriancy; and in thoſe countries where there are few rivers, reduces the ſurface of the earth to a barren ſand. Of the latter kind are the countries of Anian and Zaara, which, for want of water, and conſequently of all other neceſſaries, are nothing more than deſerts. In thoſe countries, on the other hand, where there is plenty of water, and particularly where the river overflows the land, during part of the year, as in Abyſſinia, the productions of nature, both of the animal and vegetable kind, are found in the higheſt perfection and greateſt abundance. Some of the countries in Africa are extremely rich in gold and ſilver. The baſer metals likewiſe are found in different parts. But the perſons of the natives make the moſt conſiderable article in the produce and traffic of this miſerable quarter of the globe. Among the negroes, a man's wealth conſiſts in the number of his family, whom he ſells like

like ſo many cattle, and often at an inferior price; and when ſuch is the practice with reſpect to the neareſt relations, what enormities may we not ſuppoſe to be committed, to procure the perſons of ſtrangers for this lucrative traffic? Gold and ivory, next to the ſlave trade, form the principal branches of the African commerce, which are carried on from the ſame coaſt by ſeveral of the maritime nations of Europe.

Amongſt the ſettlements eſtabliſhed by the Britiſh, there is none ſo much entitled to commendation as that of Sierra Leone, which, inſtead of being undertaken for the purpoſe of an unjuſtifiable commerce, has, on the contrary, been made ſolely with the view of aboliſhing the ſlave trade, by encouraging, through the means of voluntary labour, the cultivation of thoſe articles by which that commerce ſubſiſts. In addition to this advantage, it will ſet a beneficial example of induſtry to the natives in the neighbourhood, and may prove the happy means of introducing among them the rudiments of civilization, which has hitherto never reached thoſe ſequeſtered and inhoſpitable regions. Our own country has

likewiſe

likewiſe lately made an important acquiſition, in the Cape of Good Hope, which cannot but prove highly advantageous to the commerce of the Eaſt India Company. The poſſeſſion of it is of great conſequence, in a negative, as well as poſitive view: for were it ſtill in the hands of the Dutch, conſidering the preſent ſubjection of that country to the power of France, it could not fail of immediately becoming an appendage to the latter, who would render it a ſource of great annoyance and depredation upon the ſhips of our Eaſt India Company.—When I mention the Cape of Good Hope, I cannot refrain from congratulating my country on the acquiſition of two of the moſt important fortreſſes in the world; one in the ſouthern extremity of Europe, and the other, in that of Africa.

FINIS.